DESCRIPTION *of* ALNWICK CASTLE, NORTHUMBERLAND, *the Reſidence of the Duke of* Northumberland. *With a perſpective View of that grand Edifice.*

ALNWICK CASTLE is ſituate on the ſouth ſide of the river Alne, on an elevation that gives great dignity to its appearance. Its diſtance from London is about 308 miles. It is a noble ſtructure, rebuilt on the old foundation, and in the Saxon ſtyle; the architect has ſtrictly preſerved the whole modes and ornaments of the original. It contains about five acres of ground within its outer walls, which are flanked with ſixteen towers and turrets, that now afford a complete ſet of offices to the caſtle, and maintain many of them their original names, as well as their ancient uſe and deſtination.

Theſe are, 1. The great or outward gate of entrance, anciently called the Utter Ward. 2. The Garner or Avener's Tower: behind which are the ſtables, coach-houſes, &c. in all reſpects ſuitable to the magnitude and dignity of this great caſtle. 3. The Water Tower; containing the ciſtern or reſervoir that ſupplies the caſtle and offices with water. Adjoining to this is the laundry, &c. 4. The Caterer's Tower; adjoining to which are the kitchens, and all conveniencies of that ſort. Behind the adjacent walls are concealed a complete ſet of offices and apartments for moſt of the principal officers and attendants in the caſtle; together with a large hall, or dining-room, to entertain the tenants at their audits; with an office for the auditors, houſekeeper's room; and underneath theſe, a ſervants' hall, with all other ſuitable conveniencies. 5. The Middle Ward. 6. The Auditor's Tower. 7. The Guard-houſe. 8. The Eaſt Garret. 9. The Record's Tower; of which the lower ſtory contains the evidence room, or great repoſitory of the archives of the barony; over it is a circular apartment deſigned and executed with great taſte and beauty for a banquetting room, being 29 feet diameter, and 24 feet ſix inches high. 10. The Ravine Tower, or Hotſpur's chair. Between this and the round tower was formerly a large breach in the walls, which for time immemorial had been called by the town's people, the Bloody Gap. 11. The Conſtable's Tower; which remains chiefly in its ancient ſtate, as a ſpecimen how the caſtle itſelf was once fitted up. 12. The Poſtern Tower, or Sally Port. The upper apartment now contains old armour, arms, &c. The lower ſtory has a ſmall furnace and elaboratory for chymical and other experiments. 13. The Armourer's Tower. 14. The Falconer's Tower. 15. The Abbot's Tower; ſo called either from its ſituation neareſt to Alnwick Abbey, or from its containing an apartment for the abbot of that monaſtery whenever he retired to the caſtle. 16. The Weſt Garret.

The caſtle properly conſiſts of three courts or diviſions; the entrance into which was defended by three ſtrong maſſy gates; called the Utter Ward, the Middle Ward, and the Inner Ward. Each of theſe gates was in a high embattled tower, furniſhed with a portcullis, and the outward gate, with a drawbridge alſo: they had each of them a porter's lodge, and a ſtrong priſon, beſide other neceſſary apartments for the conſtable, bailiff, and ſubordinate officers. Under each of the priſons was a deep and dark dungeon, into which the more refractory priſoners were let down with cords, and from which there was no exit but through the trap door in the floor above. That of the inner ward is ſtill remaining in all its original horrors.

This caſtle, like many others in the north, was anciently ornamented with figures of warriors, diſtributed round the battlements, and therefore the preſent noble proprietors have allow-

ed them to be continued, and have ſupplied ſome that had been deſtroyed. Theſe, ſays Mr. Hutchinſon, the learned hiſtorian of Northumberland, repreſent men in the act of defence, wielding ſuch arms as were then uſed; ſome of them are diſpoſed with great propriety, the guard of one of the gate-ways is in the attitude of caſting down a mighty ſtone on the heads of aſſailants. From length of time, and the ſhocks it has ſuſtained in ancient wars, this caſtle was become quite a ruin, when by the death of Algernon duke of Somerſet, it devolved, together with all the eſtates of this great barony, &c. to the late duke and ducheſs of Northumberland; who immediately ſet to repair the ſame, and with the moſt conſummate taſte and judgment reſtored and embelliſhed it, as much as poſſible, in the true ancient ſtyle; ſo that it may deſervedly be conſidered as one of the nobleſt and moſt magnificent models of a great baronial caſtle.

Nothing can be more ſtriking than the effect at firſt entrance within the walls from the town, when through a dark gloomy gateway of conſiderable depth and length, the eye ſuddenly emerges into one of the moſt ſplendid ſcenes that can be imagined; and is preſented at once with the great body of the inner caſtle, ſurrounded with fair ſemicircular towers, ſwelling finely to the eye, and gayly adorned with pinnacles, figures, battlements, &c. The impreſſion is ſtill further ſtrengthened by the ſucceſſive entrance into the ſecond and third courts, through great maſſy towers, till the ſtranger is landed in the inner court, in the very center of this great citadel. Here he enters to a moſt beautiful ſtair-caſe, of a very ſingular yet pleaſing form, expanding like a fan: the cornice of the ceiling is enriched with a ſeries of one hundred and twenty eſcutcheons, diſplaying the principal quarterings and intermarriages of the Percy family. The ſpace occupied by this ſtair-caſe is 46 feet long, 35 feet four inches wide, and 43 feet two inches high.

The firſt room that preſents to the left, is the ſaloon, which is a moſt beautiful apartment, deſigned in the gayeſt and moſt elegant ſtyle of Gothic architecture; being 42 feet eight inches long, 37 feet two inches wide, and 19 feet 10 inches high. To this ſucceeds the drawing-room, conſiſting of one large oval, with a ſemicircular projection, or bow-window. It is 46 feet long, 35 wide, and 22 in height.

Hence the tranſition is very properly to the great dining-room; which was one of the firſt executed, aad is of the pureſt Gothic, with niches and other ornaments, that render it a very noble model of a great baron's hall. In this room was an irregularity in the form, which has been managed with great ſkill and judgment, and made productive of beauty and convenience. This was a large bow window, not in the center, but toward the upper end, which now affords a very agreeable receſs when the family dine alone, or for a ſecond table at the great public dinners. This room is 53 feet nine inches long, 20 feet 10 inches wide (excluſive of the circular receſs, which is 19 feet in diameter) and 26 feet 9 inches in height. From the dining-room, the ſtranger may either deſcend into the court, by a circular ſtair-caſe, or he is uſhered into a very beautiful Gothic apartment over the gate-way, commonly uſed for a breakfaſt or ſupper room; this is furniſhed with cloſets in the octagon towers, and is connected with other private apartments. It is of great dimenſions, being no leſs than 38 feet in length.

Hence the ſtranger is conducted into the library, which is a very fine room, in the form of a parallelogram, properly fitted up for books, and ornamented with ſtucco work in a very rich Gothic ſtyle. It is 64 feet long. This apartment leads to the chapel, which fills all the upper ſpace of the middle ward. Here the higheſt diſplay of Gothic ornaments in the greateſt beauty has been very properly exhibited; and the ſeveral parts of the chapel have been deſigned after

the moſt perfect models of Gothic excellence. The great eaſt window is taken from one of the fineſt in York minſter. The ceiling is borrowed from that of King's college, Cambridge; and the walls are painted after the great church in Milan. The windows are of painted glaſs. Excluſive of a beautiful circular receſs for the family the chapel is 50 feet long, 21 wide, and 22 in height.

Returning from the chapel through the library, and paſſing by another great ſtair-caſe, we enter a paſſage or gallery which leads to two great ſtate bed-chambers, each 30 feet long, moſt nobly furniſhed, with double dreſſing-rooms, cloſets, and other conveniencies, all in the higheſt elegance and magnificence, but as conformable as poſſible to the general ſtyle of the caſtle. From theſe bed-chambers the paſſage opens to the grand ſtair-caſe, by which we firſt entered, and completes a tour not eaſily to be paralleled.

Of Alnwick caſtle, Mr. Groſe ſays, 'it is believed to have been founded in the time of the Romans, although no part of the original ſtructure is now remaining. But when part of the dungeon, or caſtle-keep was taken down to be repaired ſome years ago, under the preſent walls were diſcovered the foundations of other buildings, which lay in a different direction from the preſent; and ſome of the ſtones appeared to have Roman mouldings. The dungeon, or keep, of the preſent caſtle, is believed to have been founded in the Saxon times. The zig-zag fretwork round the arch, that leads into the inner court, is evidently of Saxon architecture; and yet this was probably not the moſt ancient entrance; for under the flag-tower, before that part was taken down and rebuilt by the preſent (*late*) duke, was the appearance of a gate-way that had been walled up; directly fronting the preſent outward gateway into the town.'

This caſtle is hiſtorically connected with ſome great events of ancient times. In the reign of William Rufus, Malcolm III, king of Scotland, came to Glouceſter, to the king, to conſult with him about matters relative to the peace of both realms; but not being entertained in the pompous manner he expected, he returned home in diſpleaſure, and immediately collecting his army, entered England, and deſtroyed the country, as far as Alnwick caſtle, which he beſieged ſo ſtraitly that it was upon the point of ſurrendering; a ſoldier having promiſed to deliver him the keys upon the top of his ſpear, which, while he pretended to do, he ſtabbed the king with it. He was buried at Tinmouth in this county.

In the reign of king Stephen, when David, king of Scots, invaded the north with a vaſt army, Euſtace Fitz-John, being diſguſted becauſe that king had taken from him the government of Bambrough, and ſome other caſtles, for fear he ſhould join with Maud, the empreſs, againſt him, brought to his aſſiſtance all the power he could raiſe, and delivered into his hands the caſtle of Alnwick, which was the ſtrongeſt and greateſt fort in in all thoſe parts, and marched with him into Yorkſhire, but was ſoon after reconciled to king Stephen.

From the year 1309, this caſtle became the chief baronial ſeat in the north *, of the Percies, a family of great diſtinction in the ſouthern part of England from the time of the Conqueror. Immediately on this acquiſition, the lord Henry Percy began to repair this caſtle; and he and his ſucceſſors perfected and completed the citadel and its outworks. The two great octagon towers which were ſuperadded to the old Saxony gate-way, and conſtitute the entrance into the inner ward, were erected about the year 1350, by the ſecond lord Percy, of Alnwick, ſon to the former; who, in 1327, had been appointed one of

* Hutchinſon, vol. 2.

the twelve barons to whom the government of England was aſſigned, during the minority of king Edward III. The time of erecting theſe two towers, is aſcertained by a ſeries of eſcutcheons ſculptured upon them, which ſufficiently ſupply the place of an inſcription; and it is very remarkable, that although theſe towers have now ſtood upward of 400 years, ſo excellent is the maſonry, that they have never received or wanted the leaſt repair.

The laſt remarkable incident in hiſtory relative to this caſtle, was in the reign of king Edward IV, and happened after his great victory at Towton. One Peter de Brezè, a Frenchman, being under his ſovereign's diſpleaſure, and in priſon, was reſtored to liberty on condition of entering into the ſervice of the king of Sicily, the father of Margaret of Anjou, and conducting the troops raiſed for her ſervice into England. Brezè landed on the Northumberland coaſt with about 500 men at arms: he poſſeſſed the caſtle of Alnwick, which was ſoon after beſieged by lord Haſtings, ſir Ralph Grey, and ſir John Howard. The garriſon was reduced to great diſtreſs, when George Douglas, earl of Angus, influenced to this ſervice by great promiſes from Margaret, advanced unexpectedly to the beſiegers with 10,000 horſemen, and making ſuch manœuvres as induced the Engliſh army to apprehend he meant to attack them, while they were forming themſelves in order of battle, he brought a ſtrong party up to the poſtern gate, to whom the garriſon made a ſally, and being mounted on horſes brought for that purpoſe, or behind the armed horſemen, the ſmall garriſon evacuated the fortreſs, being only 300 in number, and fled without bloodſhed. It is believed the garriſon, before they retired, endeavoured to deſtroy all the arms and ammunition they could not carry off: for a few years ago, on opening the principal well in the inner ward, which had been long filled up, the workmen found in it a great number of cannon-balls of a large ſize, ſuch as were chiefly uſed after the firſt invention of gunpowder.

Margaret, in the month of October following, making another effort, by the treachery of ſir Ralph Gray, the governor, was again put in poſſeſſion of Alnwick caſtle: but king Edward ſoon approaching with a numerous army, and finding no forces in the field to oppoſe him, Margaret having again retired into Scotland, he laid ſiege to three great fortreſſes of Alnwick, Dunſtanborough, and Bambrough, at the ſame time. The troops which inveſted Alnwick, being ten thouſand in number, were under the command of the earl of Warwick, the earl of Kent, the lord Powis, the baron of Grayſtock, and lord Cromwell. Alnwick held out to the 6th of January; the French general Brezè having made an ineffectual effort to relieve it.

The town of Alnwick, which adjoins to the caſtle, is irregular, being built on the declivities of a hill, in various directions: the buildings are chiefly modern, and ſome of them approach to elegance. It is the county town of Northumberland, and an unrepreſented borough, governed by a bailiff, (nominated by his grace; his authority derived from the obſolete office of conſtable of the caſtle) and four chamberlains, choſen annually out of the freemen of the town. We ſhould not, perhaps, have taken notice of this town, as not neceſſarily connected with the caſtle, unleſs for the ſingular mode of electing freemen here, which will probably entertain our readers, and in oddity and abſurdity, exceeds, we believe, any cuſtom known in the kingdom.

The perſons who are to be made free, or, as the phraſe is, *leap the well*, aſſemble in the market-place, very early in the morning, on the 25th of April, being St. Mark's day. They appear on horſeback, with every man his ſword by his ſide, *dreſſed in white*, and with white night-caps, attended by the four chamberlains and the

caſtle-bailiff, mounted and armed in the ſame manner: from hence they proceed, with muſic playing before them, to a large dirty pool, called *Freeman's well*, where they diſmount, and draw up in a body, at ſome diſtance from the water; and then ruſh into it all at once, and ſcramble through the mud as faſt as they can. As the water is generally very foul, they come out in a dirty condition; but taking a dram, they put on dry clothes, remount their horſes, and ride full gallop round the confines of the diſtrict, then reenter the town, ſword in hand, and are met by women dreſſed in ribbons with bells and garlands, dancing and ſinging. Theſe are called *timber-waſts*. The houſes of the new freemen are on this day diſtinguiſhed by a great holly-buſh, as a ſignal for their friends to aſſemble and make merry with them after their return. This ceremony is owing to king John, who was mired in this well, and who, as a puniſhment for not mending the road, made this a part of their charter.

MEN AND SWINE.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

YOU may perhaps think, from the ſingular title which I have prefixed to my letter, that I am about to impoſe on your attention, with ſome political diſcuſſion adapted to the diſcontented party of our day, and that I am about to revive the abſurd and unjuſt cenſures, which have paſſed on a celebrated and very innocent expreſſion of Mr. Burke (the *ſwiniſh multitude*) the watchword of ſedition—but I truſt you will find yourſelf egregiouſly miſtaken.

Be it known to your readers, then, that among other enquiries which modern *philoſophiſts* have ſet at work to decry the evidence of Revelation, they have been particularly induſtrious in proving the varieties of the human ſpecies, that they could not come from one ſtock, and that conſequently the moſaic account of the creation muſt be falſe. This would be a great point, if it could be gained, but luckily it is as untenable in fact as in argument. This has been lately ſo admirably illuſtrated by profeſſor Blumanbach, that the queſtion may be conſidered as fairly determined, and is eſtabliſhed by a compariſon between the varieties of *men* and of *ſwine*.

The profeſſor obſerves, that ſome people reaſon as if man were the only organized being in nature, and conſider the varieties in his ſpecies to be ſtrange and problematical, without reflecting that all theſe varieties are not more ſtriking or more uncommon than thoſe with which ſo many thouſands of other ſpecies of organized beings degenerate, as it were, before our eyes. He then haſtens to refute the notion by a compariſon between the human race and that of ſwine.

More reaſons, ſays he, than one, have induced me to make choice of ſwine for this compariſon; but, in particular, becauſe they have a great ſimilarity, in many reſpects, to man: not, however in the form of their entrails, as people formerly believed, and therefore ſtudied the anatomy of the human body purpoſely in ſwine; ſo that, even in the laſt century (the 17th) a celebrated diſpute, which aroſe between the phyſicians of Heidelberg and thoſe of Durlach, reſpecting the poſition of the heart in man, was determined, in conſequence of orders from government, by inſpecting a ſow, to the great triumph of the party which was really in the wrong. Nor is it becauſe in the time of Galen, according to repeated aſſertions, human fleſh was ſaid to have a taſte perfectly ſimilar to that of ſwine: nor becauſe the fat, and the tanned hides of both, are very like to each other; but becauſe both, in regard to the economy of their bodily ſtructure,

taken on the whole, ſhow unexpectedly, on the firſt view, as well as on cloſer examination, a very ſtriking ſimilitude.

Both, for example, are domeſtic animals; both *omnivora*; both are diſperſed throughout all the four quarters of the world; and both are conſequently expoſed, in numerous ways, to the principal cauſes of degeneration ariſing from climate, mode of life, nouriſhment, &c. both, for the ſame reaſon, are ſubject to many diſeaſes, and, what is particularly worthy of remark, to diſeaſes rarely found among other animals than men and ſwine, ſuch as the ſtone in the bladder; or to diſeaſes peculiar to theſe two, ſuch as the worms found in meaſled ſwine.

Another reaſon why I have made choice of ſwine for the preſent compariſon is, becauſe the degeneration and deſcent from the original race are far more certain in theſe animals, and can be better traced, than in the varieties of other domeſtic animals. For no naturaliſt, I believe, has carried his ſcepticiſm ſo far as to doubt the deſcent of the domeſtic ſwine from the wild boar; which is ſo much the more evident, as it is well known that wild pigs, when caught, may be eaſily rendered as tame and familiar as domeſtic ſwine; and the contrary alſo is the caſe; for if the latter by any accident get into the woods, they as readily become wild again; ſo that there are inſtances of ſuch animals being ſhot for wild ſwine; and it has not been till they were opened, that people were led to a diſcovery of their origin, and how, and at what time they ran away, having been caſtrated. It is well aſcertained, that, before the diſcovery of America by the Spaniards, ſwine were unknown in that quarter of the world, and that they were afterward carried thither from Europe. All the varieties, therefore, through which this animal has ſince degenerated, belong with the original European race, to one and the ſame ſpecies; and ſince no bodily difference is found in the human race, as will preſently appear, either in regard to ſtature, colour, the form of the cranium, &c. which is not obſerved in the ſame proportion among the ſwine race, while no one, on that account, ever doubts that all theſe different kinds are merely varieties that have ariſen from degeneration through the influence of climate, &c. this compariſon, it is to be hoped, will ſilence thoſe ſceptics who have thought proper, on account of theſe varieties in the human race, to admit more than one ſpecies.

With regard to ſtature, the Patagonians, as is well known, have afforded the greateſt employment to anthropologiſts. The romantic tales, however of the old travellers, who give to theſe inhabitants of the ſouthern extremity of America, a ſtature of ten feet and more, are ſcarcely worth notice; and even the more modeſt relations of later Engliſh navigators, who make their height from ſix to ſeven feet, have been doubted by other travellers, who, on the ſame coaſt, ſought for ſuch children of Anak in vain. But we ſhall admit every thing ſaid of the extraordinary ſize of theſe Patagonians by Byron, Wallis and Carteret: the firſt of whom aſſigns to their chief, and ſeveral of his attendants, a height of not leſs than ſeven feet, as far as could be determined by the eye; the ſecond, who aſſerts that he actually meaſured them, gives to the greater part of them from five feet ten inches, to ſix feet; to ſome ſix feet five inches, and ſix feet ſix; but to the talleſt ſix feet ſeven; and this account is confirmed by the laſt mentioned of the above circumnavigators. Now, allowing this to be the caſe, it is not near ſuch an exceſs of ſtature as that obſerved in many parts of America among the ſwine, originally carried thither from Europe; and of theſe I ſhall mention in particular thoſe of Cuba, which are more than double the ſize of the original ſtock in Europe.

The natives of Guinea, Madagaſ-

car, New Holland, New Guinea, &c. are black; many American tribes are reddiſh brown, and the Europeans are white. An equal difference is obſerved among ſwine in different countries. In Piedmont, for example, they are black. When I paſſed (ſays our author) through that country during the great fair for ſwine at Salenge, I did not ſee a ſingle one of any other colour. In Bavaria, they are reddiſh brown; in Normandy, they are all white.

Human hair, is, indeed, ſomewhat different from ſwine's briſtles; yet, in the preſent point of view, they may be compared with each other. Fair hair is ſoft, and of a ſilky texture: black hair is courſer, and among ſeveral tribes, ſuch as the Abyſſinians, Negroes, and the inhabitants of New Holland, it is woolly, and moſt ſo among the Hottentots. In the like manner, among the white ſwine in Normandy, as I was aſſured by an incomparable obſerver, Sulzer of Rouneburg, the hair on the whole body is longer and ſofter than among other ſwine; and even the briſtles on the back are very little different, but lie flat, and are only longer than the hair on the other parts of the body. They cannot, therefore, be employed by the bruſh-makers. The difference between the hair of the wild boar and the domeſtic ſwine, particularly in regard to the ſofter part between the ſtrong briſtles, is, as is well known, ſtill greater.

The whole difference between the cranium of a negro and that of an European, is not in the leaſt degree greater than that equally ſtriking difference which exiſts between the cranium of the wild boar, and that of the domeſtic ſwine. Thoſe who have not obſerved this in the animals themſelves, need only to caſt their eye on the figure which Daubenton has given of both.

I ſhall paſs over leſs national varieties, which may be found among ſwine as well as among men, and only mention, that I have been aſſured by Mr. Sulzer, that the peculiarity of having the bone of the leg remarkably long, as is the caſe among the Hindoos, has been remarked with regard to the ſwine in Normandy. 'They ſtand very long on their hind legs,' ſays he, in one of his letters; 'their back, therefore, is higheſt at the rump, forming a kind of inclined plane; and the head proceeds in the ſame direction, ſo that the ſnout is not far from the ground.' I ſhall here add, that the ſwine in ſome countries have degenerated into races which in ſingularity far exceed every thing that has been found ſtrange in bodily variety among the human race. Swine with ſolid hoofs were known to the ancients, and large herds of them are found in Hungary, Sweden, &c. In the like manner, the European ſwine, firſt carried by the Spaniards, in 1509, to the iſland of Cuba, at that time celebrated for its pearl fiſhery, degenerated into a monſtrous race, with hoofs which were half a ſpan in length.——

From theſe facts, which appeared to me ſo curious as to deſerve a place in your Magazine, our author concludes, and I think with great juſtice, that it is abſurd to allow the vaſt variety of ſwine to have deſcended from one original pair, and to contend that the varieties of men are ſo many diſtinct ſpecies.

I am, ſir, &c.

LECTOR.

HISTORY OF WOOD-CUTS.

[From Dr. Gleig's Supplement to the Encyclopedia Britannica.]

WOOD-CUTS are engravings on wood, commonly on box, which, in many caſes, are uſed with advantage inſtead of copper-plates. The art of cutting or engraving on wood is undoubtedly of high antiquity; for Chineſe printing is a ſpecimen of it. Even in Europe, if credit be due to

Papillon, this art was practiſed at a period conſiderably remote; for he mentions eight engravings on wood, entitled, 'A repreſentation of the warlike actions of the great and magnanimous Macedonian king, the bold and valiant Alexander; dedicated, preſented, and humbly offered, to the moſt holy father, pope Honorius IV, by us Alexander Alberic Cunio Chevalier, and Iſabella Cunio,' &c. This anecdote, if true, carries the art of cutting in wood back to 1284 or 1285; for Honorius occupied the papal throne only during theſe two years. Even this is not the remoteſt period to which ſome have carried the art in Europe; for the uſe of ſeals or ſignets being of very high antiquity, they imagine that the invention of wood-cuts muſt be coeval with them. The ſuppoſition is certainly plauſible, but it is not ſupported by proof. The earlieſt impreſſion of a wooden cut of which we have any certain account, is that of St. Chriſtopher, carrying an infant Jeſus through the ſea, in which a hermit is ſeen holding up a lanthern to ſhew him the way; and a peaſant, with a ſack on his back, climbing a hill, is exhibited in the back ground. The date of this impreſſion is 1423.

In the year 1430, was printed at Haarlem, 'The Hiſtory of St. John the Evangeliſt, and his revelation, repreſented in forty-eight figures in wood, by Lowren Janſon Coſter;' and, in 1448, Jorg Schappf, of Augſburg, cut in wood, the hiſtory of the Apocalypſe, and what was called *The poor man's bible.*

A folio chronicle, publiſhed 1493, by Schedal, was adorned with a vaſt number of wood-cuts, by William Plydenwwrff and Michael Wolgemut, whoſe engravings were greatly ſuperior to any thing of the kind which had appeared before them. Wolgemut was the preceptor of Albert Durer, whoſe admirable performances in this department of art are juſtly held in the higheſt eſteem even at the preſent day.

About this time it became the practice of almoſt all the German engravers on copper to engrave likewiſe on wood; and many of their wood-cuts ſurpaſs in beauty the impreſſions of their copper-plates. Such are the wood cuts of Albert Aldtorfer. Hiſbel Pen, Virgil Soles, and Lucas van Lyden, the friend and imitator of Albert Durer, with ſeveral others. It appears that the Germans carried this art to a ſingular degree of perfection. Hans or John Holbein, who flouriſhed in 1500, engraved the 'Dance of Death,' in a ſeries of wood-cuts, which for the freedom and delicacy of execution, have hardly been equalled, and never ſurpaſſed.

Italy, France, and Holland, have produced many capital artiſts of this kind. John Tornæſium printed a bible, at Leyden, in 1554, (a copy of which we have ſeen) with wooden cuts of excellent workmanſhip. Chriſtopher Jegher, of Antwerp, from his eminence in the art, was employed by Rubens to work under his inſpection, and he executed many pieces which are held in much eſtimation; the character of theſe is boldneſs and ſpirit.

The next attempt at improvement in this art was by Hugo da Carpi, to whom is attributed the invention of the *Chiaro Scuro.* Carpi was an Italian, and of the ſixteenth century; but the Germans claim the invention alſo, and produce in evidence ſeveral engravings by Mair, a diſciple of Martin Schoen, of date 1499. His mode of performing this was very ſimple. He firſt engraved the ſubject upon copper, and finiſhed it as much as the artiſts of his time uſually did. He then prepared a block of wood, upon which he cut out the extreme lights, and then impreſſed it upon the print; by which means a faint tint was added to all the reſt of the piece, exeepting only in thoſe parts where the lights were meant to predominate, which appear on the ſpecimens extant to be whitened with white paint. The drawings for this ſpecies of engraving, were made on tinted paper with a pen,

and the lights were drawn upon the paper with white paint.

There is, however, a material difference between the *Chiaro Scuros* of the old German maſters, and thoſe of the Italians. Mair and Cranach engraved the outlines and deep ſhadows upon copper. The impreſſion taken in this ſtate was tinted over by means of a ſingle block of wood, with thoſe parts hollowed out which were deſigned to be left white upon the print. On the contrary, the mode of engraving by Hugo da Carpi was, to cut the outline on one block of wood, the dark ſhadows upon a ſecond, and the light ſhadows, or half tint, upon a third. The firſt being impreſſed upon the paper, the outlines only appeared: this block being taken away, the ſecond was put in its place, and being put in the ſame place upon the removal of the ſecond, and being alſo impreſſed upon the paper, made the dim tints, when the print was completed. In ſome inſtances, the number of blocks were increaſed, but the operation was ſtill the ſame, the print receiving an impreſſion from every block.

In 1698, John Baptiſt Michel Papillon practiſed engraving on wood with much ſucceſs, particularly in ornamental foliage and flowers, ſhells, &c. In the opinion, however, of ſome of the moſt eminent artiſts, his performances are ſtiff and cramped. From that period, the art of engraving on wood gradually degenerated, and it may be ſaid to have been wholly loſt, when it was lately reinvented by Mr. Bewick, of Newcaſtle.

This eminent artiſt was apprentice to Mr. Bielby, an engraver on metal, ſuch as the faces of clocks, &c. Application having been made to him for a wood-cut or two of the moſt trifling deſcription, the job was given to Thomas Bewick; by whom it was executed in ſuch a manner, that Mr. Bielby, who was accuſtomed to employ his apprentices in ſuch work, adviſed him to proſecute engraving in that line. The advice was followed; and young Bewick inventing tools, even making them with his own hands, and ſawing the wood on which he was to work into the requiſite thickneſs, proceeded to improve upon his own diſcoveries, without aſſiſtance or inſtruction of any kind. When his apprenticeſhip expired, he went to London, where the obſcure wood-engravers of the time wiſhed to avail themſelves of his abilities, while they were determined to give him no inſight into their art. He remained ſome years in London, and during that time, if we miſtake not, received from the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, &c. a premium of conſiderable value for the beſt engraving in wood. Returning to Newcaſtle, he entered into copartnerſhip with his old maſter; and eſtabliſhed his reputation as an artiſt by the publication of his admirable Hiſtory of Quadrupeds. This was followed by his Hiſtory of Birds, of which only one volume has yet been publiſhed.

John Bewick, brother to Thomas, learned the art of him, and practiſed it for ſeveral years in London with great applauſe. His abilities, however, though reſpectable, were not, by the beſt judges, deemed ſo brilliant as his brother's; and owing to bad health, and the nature of his connexion with the booksellers, and others, he ſeems not to have advanced the art beyond the ſtage at which he received it. He died, three or four years ago, at Newcaſtle.

Mr. Neſbit and Mr. Anderſon have hitherto been the laſt of Thomas Bewick's pupils, who have appeared before the public as artiſts (the former in an edition of Hogarth, the latter in the plates of Grove-hill, a poem.) By theſe gentlemen we are authorized to ſay, that the method practiſed by the ancient engravers on wood, whoſe works are ſtill admired, muſt have been different from that of Bewick and his pupils. What that method was ſeems to be altogether unknown. Papillon, who writes the beſt hiſtory extant of the art, gueſſes indeed in what

manner the old engravers proceeded, ſo as to give to their works the ſpirit and freedom for which they are famed; but that his gueſſes are erroneous ſeems evident from the ſtiffneſs of his own works. The principal characteriſtic in the mechanical department of the productions of the ancient maſters is the croſſing of the black lines, which Papillon has attempted with the greateſt awkwardneſs, though it ſeems to have been accompliſhed by them with ſo much eaſe, that they introduced it at random, even where it could add nothing to the beauty of the piece. In Bewick's method of working, this croſs hatching is difficult and unnatural, that it may be conſidered as impracticable. Mr. Neſbit has introduced ſomething of it into two or three of his pieces, merely to ſhow that he *could* do it; but ſo great was the labour, and ſo little the advantage of this improvement, if ſuch it can be called, that probably it will not be attempted again.

The engravers of Bewick's ſchool, work on the end of the wood, which is cut acroſs the trunk of the tree, in pieces of the proper thickneſs. As wood cuts are generally employed in the printer's preſs, amid a form of types, this thickneſs muſt be regulated by the height of the types, with which they are to be uſed. The tools employed are nearly the ſame with thoſe uſed in copper-plate engraving, being only a little more deep, or lozenge, as engravers call it. They muſt have points of various degrees of fineneſs for the different purpoſes to which they are applied, ſome of them being ſo much rounded off at the bottom as to approach to the nature of a goodge, while others are in fact little chiſſels of various ſizes. Theſe chiſſels and goodges, to which every artiſt gives the ſhape, which he deems moſt convenient, are held in the hand in a manner ſomewhat different from the tool of the engraver on copper, it being neceſſary to have the power of lifting the chips upward with eaſe. To attempt a deſcription of this in writing would be in vain; but it is eaſily acquired, we are told, by practice.

The pupils of the ſchool of Bewick, conſider it as quite improper to ſpeak of his invention as a revival of the ancient art. Some old prints, it is true, have the appearance of being executed in the ſame way with his; but others have certainly been done by a method very different. It is, therefore, not fair to appreciate the preſent art by what has been done, but by what may be done; and that remains yet to be ſhown. The art is in its infancy; and thoſe who are diſpoſed to compare it with the art of engraving on copper, ought to look back to the period when copper-plate engraving was of as recent invention as Bewick's method of engraving on wood. Marc Antonio, who engraved under the direction of the great painter Raphael, thought it no mean proof of his proficiency in his art, that he was able to imitate on copper-plates the wood-cuts of Albert Durer; and Papillon is highly indignant that there ſhould have been perſons ſo very blind, as to miſtake the copies for the originals. If copper has its advantages over wood in point of delicacy and minuteneſs, wood has, in its turn, advantages not inferior in regard to ſtrength and richneſs. Theſe prints, which were executed under the auſpices of Titian and Rubens, will always remain a monument of the ſpirit and vigour natural to wood-engraving; and if there be not found in them all the attention to *chiaro ſcuro*, which the preſent age demands, it muſt not be attributed either to defect in the art, or to want of abilities in the artiſts, but to the taſte of the times when *chiaro ſcuro* was little underſtood. It remains for ſome enterprizing artiſt, to ſhow that the vigour of the ancient art may be attained by the preſent one, and at the ſame time to add to that vigour thoſe gradations of ſhade, which are ſo much admired in good copper-plates. As there ſeems to be a more perfect, or at leaſt a more pleaſant black produced by wood than by copper-plate printing, and

certainly a more perfect white (the parts of the print intended to be white are not even touched by the wood-block) who will ſay that any intermediate ſhade whatever may not be produced by wood-cuts? To attempt this on a ſmall ſcale would indeed be vain, becauſe the ſlighteſt variation, produced by a little more or leſs ink, or a harder preſſure in printing, bears ſuch a proportion to a very ſhort line, as muſt neceſſarily render the attempt abortive.

Wood-engraving, therefore, muſt always appear to diſadvantage while it is confined to ſmall ſubjects, and will never reach its ſtation *as a fine art*, till thoſe who are engaged in its cultivation improve upon the diſcoveries of one another, and apply to ſubjects to which it is properly adapted. As an *economical art* for illuſtrating mechanics, and other ſubjects of ſcience, it is too little employed, even in its preſent ſtate.

RETROSPECT OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

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POLITICAL PARTIES—STATE OF EUROPEAN NATIONS.

IN our laſt article, we entered rather at large upon the ſubject of general manners, yet much more might be advanced on that topic, if a mere ſketch, which was all originally propoſed, could admit of minute details. Individual ſubjects connected with manners, are however ſo frequently handled in ſeparate eſſays, that a recapitulation here ſeems the leſs neceſſary. We ſhall therefore paſs on to the ſtate of Political Parties.

The peculiar circumſtances which uſhered in the eighteenth century, gave riſe to two parties, which pretty nearly divided the kingdom of politicians for the greater part of it. The terms Whig and Tory originally underſtood to mean thoſe who were friends, and thoſe who were enemies to the revolution-principles, which placed king William on the throne, continued for the greater part of that century to be the leading diſtinctions of political zeal. The jacobites were perhaps a third, but leſs important party, and derived their power, when they could ſhow any, from an alliance with the tories. In time, however, from the many defections in principle which diſgraced both whigs and tories, they ſeemed, in the public opinion, ſo far confounded, that the tories were conſidered as perſons *in* power, and the whigs *out* of power, and that a change of ſtations produced a correſpondent change of principles. Certain it is that no party in our time have preſerved *in place*, thoſe principles which they held when out of it, and which were probably the cauſe of their promotion. The frequent inſtances that had occurred of this political *apoſtacy*, as it has been called, had rendered the nation conſiderably callous to profeſſions of patriotiſm, and indifferent to the diſtinctions of whig and tory (although a party ſtill ſubſiſted firm and compact under the name of whigs) when the French revolution took place, and ſoon deſtroyed all former political diſtinctions, ſubſtituting in their room new ideas of government, and conſequently eſtabliſhing new parties.

At firſt, and indeed during the three firſt years of this revolution, before the French convention imbrued its hands in the blood of the mildeſt monarch that ever ſwayed the ſceptre of France, the diſtinction was into ariſtocrat and democrat, phraſes which, if they had remained at home, would not have demanded our notice in this place; but unfortunately they were ſoon imported, and eagerly adopted in our own country. An ariſtocrat was ſaid to be the friend of arbitrary power; a democrat the friend of a mob-government or anarchy. Such were the explanation the ariſtocrat gave of the democrat, and *vice verſâ*.

The ariſtocrat himſelf merely avowed his attachment to monarchal government, and a democrat profeſſed to be the friend of liberty. In a ſhort time, however, while the ariſtocrat remained, the democrat became a *jacobin*, a name which is ſtill retained, although ſo variouſly applied, that it is not eaſy to appreciate its full meaning. By moſt it is, however, underſtood to import that revolutionary mania and levelling principle, without ſenſe, without ſyſtem, without humanity, which prevailed during the firſt two years, or perhaps more, after the death of the king of France. Since that period, ſo many parties have ſtarted in France, and obtained a temporary ſuperiority, that all principle ſeems confounded, and although France has lately been ſucceſsful, it is impoſſible to ſay under what deſcription her civil government can be ranked. However, the effects of wild theories on the ſubject of government were too viſible in our own country, and perhaps it will be ſome conſiderable time before they are wholly eradicated.

The mention of the French revolution, by far the moſt important event of the eighteenth century, on which volumes have been written, and on which volumes will continue to be written, neceſſarily leads us to cloſe our brief retroſpect of the paſt century, with a review of the ſtate of Europe, and it is with much ſatisfaction that we are enabled to contemplate a ſuperiority in the fate of Great Britain over the nation on the continent, which the hard and expenſive ſtruggle ſhe has had to carry on, has not comparatively leſſened.

From what has been advanced in our former articles, we have ſhown in what this ſuperiority conſiſts, in the progreſs of her commerce, the ſecurity of her poſſeſſions, by a navy bleſſed with uninterrupted ſucceſs, and by a *credit*, which neither misfortune nor, we had almoſt ſaid, miſconduct has been able to ſhake. Whoever compares the ſtate of Great Britain at the commencement, and at the cloſe of the laſt century, will be ſtruck with the amazing contraſt, the immenſe improvements, and the unabated ſpirit of commerce, and manufactures, which has obtained for her a decided preference in foreign markets. Let it be remarked alſo, that as the century began with the union, ſo obviouſly pointed out by nature, between the crowns of England and Scotland, ſo it has concluded by an union, as obviouſly ariſing from policy and neceſſity between Great Britain and Ireland. The return of peace will, in all human probability, extend the advantages Great Britain enjoys to the united kingdom, in ſuch a manner as to conſolidate its intereſts upon the firm baſis of popular opinion, and render the future attempts of foreign hoſtility, or domeſtic diſaffection, wholly nugatory.—Whatever differences of political ſentiment may be among us, whatever opinion ſome may entertain of the meaſures adopted by the late adminiſtration, or of the actual ſtate of the country in its liberties and privileges, we apprehend, that upon a fair eſtimate and compariſon, it will be found that there is no nation under the earth at this moment, which can boaſt of more advantages, of a more pure conſtitution, or more practical liberty, nor where the general character of the people is better adapted to form a ſociety of happineſs and ſecurity. It is in vain to expect *perfection* in forms of government, in ſets of miniſters, or in great bodies of people, but let the compariſon we have recommended be fairly inſtituted, and we think it impoſſible that the reſult ſhould not be to the honour of the nation.

If we look at the next formidable power, the ancient rival of Great Britain, France, it will be ſeen that no country has undergone changes ſo very important in the courſe of the laſt century. At the commencement of it, and under the reign of Louis XIV, a deſpotic prince, no nation was ſo remarkable for loyalty. At the concluſion, all reſpect for monarchal

government was either wholly ſuppreſſed, or ſo diminiſhed as never to have been formidable to any of the ſucceſſions of revolutionary governments; greater in arms than at the beginning of the century, but in order, ſociety, regular eſtabliſhments, commerce, depending on chance and ſhifts. Its conſtitution ſcarcely, as we have already obſerved, defineable, and kept together for the preſent by the perſonal ſucceſs and influence of one man.

Spain preſents us with an inſtance of gradual decline during the whole of the eighteenth century; a decline, however, which has been progreſſive for a much longer period. Its alliance with France, by what was called the Family Compact, ſeemed to have been intended to buttreſs its falling fabric, but the only conſequence was its being involved in the ſame wars with France, and having its navy deſtroyed and its poſſeſſions taken by the Engliſh. Scarcely any nation is more inſignificant in the ſcale of Europe at preſent. Spain joined in the confederacy againſt France, but was the firſt to fall a ſacrifice, and has ſince been governed entirely by French councils.

Portugal, once a trading and a flouriſhing kingdom, has declined in like manner, deriving its principal ſupport from its colonial poſſeſſions, and a beneficial trade with Great Britain. That it ſhould not have been ſwallowed up in the revolutionary wreck of Europe long ere now, is ſomewhat extraordinary. Nature has been bountiful to this country, but it has much longer retained the bigotry and ſuperſtition of the Romiſh religion than any other country, and the improvements of mind are leſs to be looked for in it than in any part of Europe. We may here mention, that in the courſe of the preceding century, France was governed by three actual ſovereigns, and two nominal ones, Louis XVII and Louis XVIII; Spain by four, and Portugal by five kings or queens.

Ruſſia, during the eighteenth century, has made a gigantic progreſs. At the beginning, it was not equal to either Denmark or Sweden, but by the wiſdom of its ſovereigns, it has not only ſpread to a greater extent than that of any other nation, but riſen to a very important rank among the powers of Europe. Much of its ſuperiority muſt be attributed to the management of the empreſs Catherine, who, with many failings, contrived the means to promote the uſeful arts at home, and keep together an immenſe population, riſing through various gradations of ſlavery. She was certainly one of the *wiſeſt* of princeſſes, but whether the means ſhe took to extend her influence and her empire, were always the beſt and moſt juſtifiable, is a queſtion which a politician would have more pleaſure in anſwering than a moraliſt. Such invaſion of territory as diſtinguiſhes ſome part of her reign, is not known nor acknowledged in our hiſtory, nor accordant to our feelings. Ruſſia had eight ſovereigns during the laſt century, four of whom were women.

Poland naturally preſents itſelf from a remark juſt made on invaſion. This was, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, a formidable power, and a deſireable ally to the ſovereign of the north. Within a few years, we have ſeen it completely blotted out of the map of Europe as a kingdom. Its dominions were divided, though not in equal ſhares, between Ruſſia Pruſſia, and Germany. It had only three kings in the courſe of the whole century, the laſt of whom, although a dethroned monarch, had the ſingular fortune to die a natural death, *Rex polonorum ultimus.*

Sweden, another ſmall, but warlike ſtate, has not advanced much in political importance during the laſt hundred years. By remaining neutral, however, during the war, ſhe has profited as a trader with the belligerent powers, but at the very cloſe of the century, was induced to join in a confederacy againſt Great Britain, from

which ſhe cannot be ſuppoſed to derive much advantage. The preſent is the fifth monarch ſince the commencement of the laſt century.

Denmark, once, likewiſe, a formidable neighbour, has now ſunk into the placid ſtate of a commercial nation, governed, as we have been aſſured, by a wiſe prince, during the incapacity of his father, and profiting by the ſame line of neutrality obſerved by Sweden. Yet, like that power, induced, in an evil moment, to join a confederacy, which, while we are writing this article, is clearly proved to be the moſt impolitic ſtep ſhe could have taken. In commerce and civilization, Denmark made great progreſs in the courſe of the laſt century, but her political conſequence as a *power* is gone for ever. Four ſovereigns have ſwayed the Daniſh ſceptre ſince 1700.

The ſtates, we have already enumerated, owe little of their changes, during the laſt century, to the conſequences of the French revolution. What follows are entirely indebted to that event for their riſe or fall.

Pruſſia—a dukedom only at the beginning of the eighteenth century, has, through the management of five very politic ſovereigns, riſen to the importance of a leading power in Europe, and its recent alliance with France has given it a preponderating conſequence, which even the great Frederick could neither have foreſeen nor expected. It has always had the good fortune to profit by the diviſions of its neighbours, and its conduct for the laſt eight years places the *cunning* of government in a very ſtriking point of view.

Germany, a ſtate vaſt, unwieldy, and cumbrous, of the firſt importance when the laſt century began, and maintaining its conſequence throughout the greater part of it, always in one part or other the ſeat of war, immenſe by its extent, and complicated by its various intereſts, ſeems now to be on the verge of diſſolution. Belgium is loſt to it, and the hard conditions of the treaty of peace in agitation will contract its limits much further. Joſeph II, appears to have laid the foundation of the diſſentions, which rendered it a more eaſy prey to the French arms, and yet perhaps Joſeph was not the moſt impolitic of the eight ſovereigns, who had to guide its affairs during the laſt century.

Holland, at the beginning of our period, was one of the principal commercial nations; it enjoyed practical liberty; ſtrict in its religion and morals; a refuge for the perſecuted of all nations; and the uſeful ally of all commercial ſtates. At the end of the century, it has loſt its only ſupport, its trade; it gave up its ancient government, and is in fact a province of France.

The Italian ſtates may now be claſſed together as alike in their misfortunes, attributable to that great revolution, which has rendered our geographical and ſtatiſtical records as a 'tale that is told.' At the beginning of the laſt century, the papal power was great—not indeed as it had been previous to the reformation—but in Catholic countries, its influence was temporal as well as ſpiritual in a very great degree. The cauſes of its precipitate fall have been traced by an able and induſtrious writer, to ſocieties of infidels on the continent. There may be truth in this; but ſtill the power of the pope, and the doctrines of popery itſelf are not of that kind, which could have long withſtood the regular propagation of truth and proteſtaniſm, without the latter being accuſed of deriving any aid from the conſpiracies of infidels. At the cloſe of the century, the eccleſiaſtical ſtate of Rome was entirely overthrown, and not one of its vaſſal powers in Europe were able, or willing to lend a hand to ſupport it. But beſide the influence of French arms in this overthrow, it is evident that a diſunion among the Italian ſtates, rendered them a more eaſy prey to the invader than they would otherwiſe have been. They have formerly reſiſted the moſt

powerful monarchs; but a long period of peace had 'ficklied o'er the land,' with effeminacy. No one can contemplate the ſtate of ſociety in Italy, and conſider it as beneficial to happineſs, religion, or ſocial order. The deſcription Goldſmith gave ſome years ſince, in his much admired poem, is too juſt:

Could nature's bounty ſatisfy the breaſt,
The ſons of Italy were ſurely bleſt.——
But ſmall the bliſs that ſenſe alone beſtows,
And ſenſual bliſs is all the nation knows.
In florid beauty groves and fields appear,
Man ſeems the only growth that dwindles here.
Contraſted faults through all his manners reign:
Though poor, luxurious; though ſubmiſſive, vain;
Though grave, yet trifling; zealous, yet untrue:
And even in penance planning ſins anew.
All evils here contaminate the mind,
That opulence departed leaves behind, &c.

The other ſmall ſtates of Europe, the Savoy, the Swiſs Cantons, &c. have experienced ſimilar revolutions from the incurſions of the French. Of theſe, the overthrow of the Swiſs afforded moſt regret to men of reflection. That peaceful country, long the nurſe of liberty, and the ſure refuge from the oppreſſions of neighbouring nations, preſents no longer an aſylum to the man of taſte and literature. He cannot now retire thither to enjoy freedom from the convulſions of war and tumult. Political diſſention has ſpread its baneful influence among a people, once invincible by union and local ſecurity.

There is one empire more which may be added to the liſt of thoſe, which, in the courſe of the laſt century, have ſuffered a gradual declenſion, that of Turkey, now tottering to its foundation. It is not eaſy, indeed, to conceive how an empire ſo conſtituted could long ſubſiſt in the neighbourhood of civilization and improvement. But ages may yet paſs before the inhabitants of the Turkiſh dominions, whoever may be their conquerors, can derive the bleſſings of rational liberty, of literature, or of religion.

If the above ſketch of the changes produced in the ſpace of the laſt century, upon the various nations of Europe, be juſt, it will ſerve to confirm the exultation with which we have diſtinguiſhed the *advancement* of our own country, during the ſame period. Yet let not this be underſtood as the boaſt of pride. It becomes more properly the tribute of gratitude to that Being, from whom we have derived ſo many bleſſings, and whoſe worſhip has never been diſcouraged in this nation by the hand of power, nor diſcountenanced by the general voice. No nation on earth has more cauſe to be thankful for the advantages it enjoys and enjoyed for many centuries, yet if theſe are employed to unworthy purpoſes, if peace begets inſolence, and ſecurity takes from us a reverence for the 'giver of every good and perfect gift,' we may have reaſon to fear that the ſcourge which has chaſtiſed the impiety of nations, will fall with redoubled force on thoſe to whom 'much has been given, and of whom much will be required.'

THE GIANTS' CAUSEWAY.

[From Dallas' Tranſlation of the Abbé Ordinaire's Natural Hiſtory of Volcanoes.]

IT has been diſcuſſed, but never yet decided, whether there have been volcanoes in Ireland. There does not ſeem to be any other grounds for the affirmative than the exiſtence of the Giants' Cauſeway. The common people, ſtruck with the regularity of that immenſe object, judged it to be the work of men; and on account of the extraordinary ſtrength it muſt have required, they ſuppoſed thoſe men to have been giants. But why ſhould we be aſtoniſhed to find nature regular in great as well as in ſmall objects? Conſequently, in this Cauſeway, as well as in the grains of the

various ſalts, and in all the other ſmaller cryſtals? Allow this, and there is farther occaſion to have recourſe, on this ſubject, either to the ſkill of man, or to a race ſuperior to the preſent ſpecies.

This famous Cauſeway is in the county of Antrim. It is a collection of columns regularly diſpoſed, each adapted to thoſe that are round it, ſo as to leave no vacancy in the whole. It extends viſibly without interruption about fourteen Engliſh miles, part on land and part in the ſea, where the end of it is by no means aſcertained, for it ſinks by degrees the farther it is traced under the water.

The regularity is not confined to the compoſition of the general pile, but deſcends to the formation of each column. The ſubſtance is throughout of the ſame nature; and is a ſpecies of marble of an iron-gray colour, with which the ancients were acquainted under the name of baſaltes. This ſubſtance in its weight, durability, and colour, is very much like lava dug from the bottom of a quarry; which has induced many men to give the name of baſaltes to the currents of lava: a denomination I am not inclined to adopt, becauſe, not only the baſaltes, eſpecially that of the Giants' Cauſeway, is ſo compact, that the eye perceives no vacuity in its ſubſtance, whereas lava is evidently porous; but there is ſtill a much more eſſential difference between that and lava; for baſaltes has no mixture of any metal, and lava, on the contrary, particularly, that at the bottom, is always amalgamated. The denomination, nevertheleſs, ſeems generally admitted, with a diſtinction that has been introduced, of jointed, cryſtallized, or priſmatic baſaltes, and of not jointed or common baſaltes. Of courſe the lava muſt be of the latter kind.

The Giants' Cauſeway is all of jointed baſaltes; that is to ſay, firſt, That each column in it preſent ſeparately a regular ſolid body of three, four, five, and even ſo many as nine faces; but the figures moſt uſual are, the pentagonal, hexagonal, and heptagonal. The common height of the columns is forty feet above the ground; the depth below has not been inquired into, and the diameters are from a foot to two feet and a half. Secondly, That each column is compoſed of diſtinct pieces, the ſhape and dimenſions of which are always equal, and exactly fit the hollow, in the pieces adapted to receive the lengthened and rounded extremity of the piece which joins into it. Each of theſe pieces is nearly a foot; ſo that in general the height may be known from the number of pieces. Thirdly, That immediately next to a pillar in which the convex part is above the concave, one is frequently found that has all its joints directly the reverſe; that is to ſay, the concave parts are on the contrary above the convex. Theſe particulars are given in a diſcourſe on cryſtallization, by Dr. Alexander Eaton, in the Memoirs of the Literary and Philoſophical Society of Mancheſter.

The regularity of this admirable ſtructure goes even farther. There is a point where, in a ſinking of the height, fifty of theſe columns appear diſpoſed in ſuch a manner, that the higheſt, which is forty feet high, and has forty-four joints, ſtands in the centre, and the reſt, to the right and left of it, ſlope off gradually till they meet the line on each ſide. From which appearance, that part has been called the organ-pipes.

There are other particularities in this Cauſeway, which ſome may think intereſting; but I have confined myſelf to what ſeems to me ſufficient to give an idea of it. Two fine prints were publiſhed by Mr. Drury, preſenting different views of the Giants' Cauſeway. Productions of a ſimilar kind are found in Merionethſhire, and in ſome of the Hebrides or Weſtern Iſles. Sir Joſeph Banks conjectures that the ſmall iſland of Staffa, one of the Hebrides, thirty leagues north of the Giants' Cauſeway, is a maſs of baſaltic priſms. They are to be found in many other places, but no where on ſo large a ſcale as in the county of Antrim.

BIOGRAPHICAL REGISTER *of eminent* PERSONS *deceaſed in* 1800.

Continued from Page 264.

Dr. JOSEPH WARTON.

ONE of the laſt ſcholars of what might be termed the old age of Engliſh literature, was born about the year 1722; his father, Thomas Warton, B. D. was fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, poetry-profeſſor, from the year 1718 to 1728, and vicar of Baſingſtoke, in Hampſhire, and Cobham, in Surry. He married Eliſabeth, daughter of the Rev. Joſeph Richardſon, rector of Dunfold, in Surry, by whom he had three children; Joſeph, the object of our preſent article; Thomas, well known to the public as the poet-laureat and hiſtorian of Engliſh poetry, who died in 1790; and a daughter. After his death, a volume of his poems was printed by ſubſcription in the year 1745. He is at preſent known to the public by none of his productions more advantageouſly than by his ingenious epigram, occaſioned by a regiment of horſe being ſent to Oxford, by George II, at the ſame time that he gave a collection of books to the univerſity of Cambridge. This is too ſhort to require an apology for tranſcription in this place.

The king obſerving, with judicious eyes,
The ſtate of both his univerſities,
To one he ſent a regiment; for why?
That learned body wanted loyalty:—
To th' other he ſent books, as well diſcerning
How much that loyal body wanted learning.

It may alſo be proper to mention here, that in many collections of poetical pieces, theſe lines are unjuſtly attributed to Dr. Trapp.—

Mr. Joſeph Warton was probably educated at Wincheſter ſchool; he was admitted of Oriel College, Oxford, proceeded M. A. by diploma, June 23, 1759, and B. and D. D. January 15, 1768. Such are the dates in the catalogue of Oxford graduates, and thence copied into our periodical works, but we conceive them to be partly erroneous; he muſt have arrived at thoſe degrees at leaſt ten years ſooner than here ſtated. At what time he was elected head-maſter of Wincheſter College, is not exactly known, but he reſigned it in 1793. His promotions in the church were neither numerous, nor very valuable. He was rector of Wickham, in Hampſhire, a prebendary of Wincheſter, and rector of Upham, in Hampſhire, which laſt he received from the biſhop of Wincheſter in 1792.

His earlieſt publication was 'An Ode on reading Weſt's Pindar, 1749,' followed by other ſhort poems, among which is the 'Enthuſiaſt, or Lover of Nature.' In 1746, when B. A. 'Odes on ſeveral Subjects,' 8vo. In 1756, without his name, the 'Eſſay on the Writings and Genius of Pope, vol. I.' and in 1782, the ſecond volume, of which the firſt 200 pages were printed twenty years before publication. Dr. Johnſon aſſigned to his biographer, Mr. Boſwell, a ſingular reaſon for this uncommon delay. 'Why, ſir, I ſuppoſe he finds himſelf a little diſappointed, in not having been able to perſuade the world to be of his opinion as to Pope.' The world, however, does not now differ materially from Dr. Warton's opinion.

In 1753, was publiſhed, 'The Works of Virgil in Engliſh verſe; the Eneid, tranſlated by the Rev. Mr. Chriſtopher Pitt, the Eclogues and Georgics, by Mr. Joſeph Warton,' &c. in 4 vol. 8vo: dedicated to ſir George, afterward lord Littleton. Of Dr. Warton's Eclogues and Georgics, it may be ſaid that they convey the ſenſe of the originals with greater exactneſs and perſpicacity than any other tranſlation we have; that their verſification is eaſy and harmonious, and their ſtyle correct and pure; yet, if

read for themſelves; they are inferior, as pleaſing poems, to the ſimilar performances of Dryden.

His laſt work, the labour of many years, he gave to the world in 1797, an edition of the works of Pope, in 9 vol. 8vo. but the expectation which this work had excited in the literary world, was in ſome meaſure diſappointed. It bears evident marks of haſte, and the commentary conſiſts of a ſelection of the beſt of Warburton's notes, combined with the correſponding parts of the Eſſay on the Writings and Genius of Pope. Notwithſtanding, however, various blemiſhes of ſtyle, and inſtances of the garrulity of age, the notes are uſeful and entertaining, and upon the whole this is the beſt edition we have of Pope.

It is ſaid, Dr. Warton had made collections for a literary hiſtory of the age of Leo the tenth, and propoſals were actually in circulation for a work of that kind; but it is probable that the duties of his ſtation did not leave him the neceſſary leiſure for an undertaking of this kind, which required years of ſecluſion and independence.

To theſe particulars, we add the following character from a friend; Dr. Warton was prevented, by his profeſſional avocations, from cultivating thoſe talents for the pulpit, which he ſo eminently poſſeſſed. I once heard him preach in a camp near Winchester; and his ſermon, on that occaſion, is remembered by me, both as to compoſition, appropriation, and delivery, as a very ſuperior example of pulpit eloquence. Cheerful in his temper, convivial in his diſpoſition, of an elegant taſte and lively imagination, with a large portion of ſcholarſhip, and a very general knowledge of the Belles Lettres of Europe, it may be preſumed that Dr. Warton poſſeſſed, beyond moſt men, the power of enlivening claſſical ſociety. He was the intimate friend of Dr. Johnſon; and was originally a member of the literary club. He poſſeſſed a liberal mind, a generous diſpoſition, and a benevolent heart.'

Dr. Warton was twice married; and by his firſt wife, had one ſon, who diſappointed his hopes, and was found dead in his father's library at Winchester; and ſeveral daughters. He died at Wickham, Hants, Feb. 23.

To the above liſt of his works, we had almoſt forgot to add thoſe papers in the Adventurer, containing criticiſms on Shakſpeare, which diſplay the trueſt taſte and feeling. He was, indeed, on every occaſion, a cheerful contributor, and uſeful aſſiſtant, to works of literary importance.

Hon. Daines Barrington.

This eminent antiquary was the fourth ſon of the firſt lord viſcount Barrington, himſelf a character of no ſmall fame in the literary world. His name was originally John Shute, the youngeſt ſon of Benjamin Shute, merchant, and born in 1678. In the reign of queen Anne, in conſequence of ſome eſtates being bequeathed to him by Francis Barrington, of Tofts, eſq. he procured an act of parliament to aſſume the name and bear the arms of Barrington. In 1720, he was created Barrington, of Newcaſtle, and viſcount Barrington, of Ardglaſs. His able works on religion are well known. He comes to be mentioned here for the ſingular circumſtance of having five ſons, all of whom attained the higheſt ranks of their reſpective profeſſions. He married Anne, eldeſt daughter of ſir William Daines, by whom he left ſix ſons and three daughters. William, his eldeſt ſon, ſucceeded to his father's honours, on his demiſe, in 1734; and in the late and preſent reigns, paſſed through the ſucceſſive offices of lord of the admiralty, maſter of the wardrobe, chancellor of the exchequer, treaſurer of the navy, and ſecretary at war. Francis, the ſecond, died young. John, the third, was a major-general in the army, commanded the land forces at the reduction of the iſland of Guadaloupe, in 1758, and died in 1764. Daines, the fourth, is the ſubject of our preſent article. Samuel, the fifth, was vice-admiral of the white, and greatly

diſtinguiſhed in the three laſt wars; he died in 1793. Shute, the ſixth, is the preſent biſhop of Durham.

Daines Barrington was educated in the profeſſion of the law, became one of his majeſty's counſel, and a bencher of the hon. ſociety of the Inner Temple; appointed 1751, marſhal of the high court of admiralty in England, which he reſigned in 1753, on being appointed ſecretary for the affairs of Greenwich hoſpital; was appointed a judge on the North Wales circuit, 1757; and afterward ſecond juſtice of Cheſter, which he reſigned 1785, receiving then a penſion, and at his death, retained only the place of commiſſary-general of the ſtores at Gibraltar.

Although he claimed no high diſtinction as a lawyer, he was univerſally allowed to be a profound and judicious antiquary. His firſt publication, which will always maintain its rank, and has gone through five editions, was 'Obſervations on the Statutes, chiefly the more ancient, from Magna Charta to 21 James 1, c. 27; with an Appendix, being a propoſal for new-modeling the Statutes, 4to, 1766.' The following year he exchanged his ſeverer ſtudies for thoſe of a lighter kind, in natural hiſtory, and publiſhed, 'The Naturaliſt's Calendar,' which has alſo had more than one edition. He was leſs ſucceſsful in the Engliſh tranſlation of Oroſius, which expoſed him to ſevere animadverſions, which the reader will find in the forty-ſeventh volume of the Gentleman's Magazine. His next publication was 'Tracts on the probability of reaching the North Pole, 1775, 4to.' He was the firſt propoſer of the voyage to the North Pole, which was undertaken by captain Phipps, afterward lord Mulgrave, and, on the event of it, he collected a variety of facts and ſpeculations, to evince the practicability of ſuch an undertaking. His tracts on this ſubject, which however have not been ſo ſatisfactory as could have been wiſhed, were republiſhed in his 'Miſcellanies on various Subjects, 1781,' 4to; conſiſting of ſome of his papers in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, and other miſcellaneous eſſays compoſed or compiled by him. He enriched the Philoſophical Tranſactions, the Archeologia, and other publications, with a great number of curious papers. He was elected F. A. S. in 1767, and for ſome years was vice-preſident of that ſociety, which rank he reſigned on account of the ill ſtate of his health. He died March 14, 1800, and his remains were interred in the Temple church.

There are certain men, ſays one who appears to have known him well, who, without the boaſt of great talents or reſplendent abilities, obtain, by uſeful diligence, accurate inveſtigation, and invariable integrity, that ſolid reſpect which the eccentricities of genius will ſeldom ſuffer genius to enjoy. Such reſpect did Daines Barrington poſſeſs through a long and honourable life. He was bred to the bar; but, though eſteemed a very ſound lawyer, he never roſe to any diſtinguiſhed eminence as a pleader. He was, however, for ſome time, recorder of Briſtol, a very reſpectable ſituation, in which he was preceded by that eminent judge, ſir Michael Foſter, and was ſucceeded by the firſt lawyer of his day, afterward created lord Aſhburton. If it had been his wiſh he might, without doubt, have attained the Engliſh ermine; but, poſſeſſed of an ample income, having a ſtrong bias to antiquarian knowledge, natural hiſtory, and its concomitant ſtudies, he retired from the practice of the law, and applied his legal knowledge to the purpoſes of inveſtigating curious queſtions of legal antiquity.—He was among thoſe who, at a former period, frequented Tom's coffeehouſe, near the Temple, where, during the early part of the evening, the literature and theatrical hiſtory of the day were agreeably diſcuſſed by men who were capable of deeper diſcuſſions; but Tom's coffeehouſe is no more, and Mr. Barrington, perhaps,

was the laſt of thoſe who formed that pleaſant ſociety. He had for a great number of years occupied the chambers in the King's-bench-walks, in the Inner Temple, where he died. His latter companions were principally the benchers of that ſociety, of which he was one; and the little exerciſe which he had for ſome time been able to take, was in the Temple gardens, whoſe arrangement he was pleaſed to ſuperintend; and where he appeared to find an occaſional amuſement in obſerving the growth of the few trees and flowers which adorn them.—Mr. Barrington was above ſeventy years old, but his exact age is nowhere aſcertained.

WILLIAM COWPER, Eſq.

THIS celebrated poet was the third in deſcent from the great earl Cowper, lord chancellor of England. He was born at Berkhamſtead, in Hertfordſhire, in 1722, and educated at Weſtminſter ſchool; but the place of clerk of the houſe of lords, being reſerved for him, he was not ſent to complete his ſtudies at the univerſity, but finiſhed them at the Temple. He had, however, an inſuperable averſion to the drudgery of the law, and indeed to all manner of public buſineſs. He wholly gave himſelf up to this propenſity; and *Otia noſtra* has appeared to have been his motto all his life. The profound reflections which frequent retirement into the country, occaſioned him to indulge in, begat a ſerioufneſs of manners and aſpect which alarmed his friends, and excited their united endeavours to avert the apprehended conſequences. But notwithſtanding theſe kind and affectionate precautions in thoſe about him, he contracted a morbid melancholy, which at times deprived him of reaſon. He reſided at Huntingdon, for ſeveral years, in the cloſeſt friendſhip with the Rev. Mr. Unwin, a moſt worthy clergyman; after whoſe death, he retired to Olney, in Buckinghamſhire, with the widow of that friend. At this village he wrote the principal part of his poems.

Here the habitual gloominefs which had ſo long preyed upon his mind, was attempered at leaſt, if not wholly removed, by an intercourſe with the pious and Rev. Mr. Newton, then miniſter of that place, and now rector of St. Mary Woolnoth's, London. The mind of Mr. Cowper, long perplexed by ſcruples of a religious nature, long bewildered on the ſubject of revelation itſelf, and haraſſed by new dogmas and metaphyſical objections, thus at laſt became ſettled and compoſed. It is not to be wondered, therefore, that between him and his new friend and guide, Mr. Newton, the moſt endearing friendſhip ſhould have been formed. When Mr. Newton publiſhed his volume of Hymns, called 'The Olney Hymns,' it was enriched with ſome compoſitions from the pen of Mr. Cowper, which have been ſince adopted into other collections. They bear internal evidence, in addition to their pious fervour, of a cultivated underſtanding, and an original genius. His time was now wholly dedicated to that literary leiſure, in which the mind, left to its own operations, follows up that line of purſuit, which is the moſt congenial to its taſte, and the moſt adapted to its powers. In his garden, in his library, and in his daily walks, he ſeems to have diſciplined his muſe to the picturefque and vivid habits of deſcription, which will always diſtinguiſh Cowper among our national poets. No writer, with the exception of Thompſon, ſeems to have ſtudied nature with more diligence, and to have copied her with more fidelity; an advantage which he has gained over other men, by his diſdaining to ſtudy her, 'through the ſpectacles of books,' as Dryden calls it; and by his purſuing her through her haunts, and watching her in all her attitudes, with the eye of a philoſopher as well as of a poet. As Mr. Cowper had no reliſh for public concerns, it was not ſingular that he ſhould have neglected the ſtudy of the law, on which he had entered. That knowledge of active life, which is ſo requiſite for the legal pro-

ſeſſion, would hardly be acquired on the bank of the Ouſe, and in ſilent contemplations on the beauties of nature. In this retreat, he exchanged for the ſociety and converſe of the muſes, the ambition and tumult of a forenſic occupation; dedicating his mind to the cultivation of poetry, and ſtoring it with thoſe images which he derived from the inexhauſtible treaſury of a rich and varied ſcenery, in a moſt beautiful and romantic country.

The firſt volume of his poems, which was publiſhed by Mr. Newton, in 1782, conſiſts of various pieces on various ſubjects. It appears that he had been aſſiduous in cultivating a turn for grave and argumentative verſification on moral and ethical topics. Of this kind is the Table Talk, and ſeveral other pieces in the collection. He who objects to thoſe poems as containing too great a neglect of harmony in the arrangement of his words, and the uſe of expreſſions too proſaic, will condemn him on principles of criticiſm, which are by no means juſt, if the object and ſtyle of the ſubject be conſidered. Horace apologized for the ſtyle of his own ſatires, which are, ſtrictly ſpeaking, only ethical and moral diſcourſes, by obſerving, that thoſe topics require the *pedeſtrian* and familiar diction, and a form of expreſſion, not carried to the heights of poetry. But if the reader will forego the delight of ſmooth verſification, and recollect that poetry does not altogether conſiſt in even and poliſhed metre, he will remark in theſe productions, no ordinary depth of thinking and of judgment, upon the moſt important ſubjects of human intercourſe; and he will be occaſionally ſtruck with lines, not unworthy of Dryden, for their ſtrength and dignity. His lighter poems are well known, particularly the verſes ſuppoſed to have been written by Alexander Selkirk, or Robinſon Cruſoe, on his deſert iſland.

It would be abſurd to give one general character of the pieces that were publiſhed in this volume; yet this is true concerning Mr. Cowper's production, that in all the varieties of his ſtyle, there may ſtill be diſcerned the likeneſs and impreſſion of the ſame mind; the ſame unaffected modeſty, which always rejects unſeaſonable ambitions, and ornaments of language; the ſame eaſy vigour; the ſame ſerene and cheerful hope, derived from a ſteady and unſhaken faith in the doctrines of Chriſtianity. Mr. Cowper, perhaps, does not derive praiſe from the choice and elegance of his words; but he has the higher praiſe of having choſen them without affectation. He appears to have uſed them as he found them; neither introducing faſtidious refinements, nor adhering to obſolete barbariſms. He underſtood the whole ſcience of numbers, and he has practiſed their different kinds with conſiderable happineſs; and if his verſes do not flow ſo ſoftly as the delicacy of a modern ear requires, that roughneſs, which is objected to in his poetry, is his choice, not his defect. But this ſort of critics, who admire only what is exquiſitely poliſhed, ought to take into their eſtimate, that vaſt effuſion of thought, which is ſo abundantly poured over the writings of Cowper, without which human diſcourſe is only a combination of ſounds and ſyllables. The favourable reception which this volume experienced, produced another of ſuperior merit.

'The Taſk,' is, indeed, unqueſtionably his principal performance. The occaſion that gave birth to it was trivial. A lady had requeſted him to write a piece in blank verſe, and gave him for its ſubject a thing next to her at the time, a *ſofa*. This he expanded into one of the fineſt moral poems our language has produced. It is written in blank verſe, as deſired; and though in that reſpect it reſembles Milton's, it is nevertheleſs original and characteriſtic. It is not too ſtately for familiar deſcription, nor too depreſſed for ſublime and elevated imagery. If it has any fault, it is

that of being too much laden with idiomatic expreſſion; a fault which the author, in the rapidity with which his ideas and his utterance ſeem to have flowed, very naturally incurred. In this poem, his fancy ran with the moſt excurſive freedom. The poet enlarges upon his topics, and confirms his argument by every variety of illuſtration. He never, however, dwells upon them too long, and leaves off in ſuch a manner, that it ſeems in his power to have ſaid more.

The arguments of the poem are various. The works of nature, the aſſociations with which they exhibit themſelves, the deſigns of Providence, and the paſſions of men. Of one advantage the writer has amply availed himſelf. The work not being rigidly confined to any preciſe ſubject, he has indulged himſelf in all the freedom of a miſcellaneous poem. Yet he has ſtill adhered ſo faithfully to the general laws of congruity, that whether he inſpires the ſofter affections into his reader, or delights him with keen and playful raillery, or diſcourſes on the ordinary manners of human nature, or holds up the bright pictures of religious conſolation to his mind, he adopts, at pleaſure, a diction juſt and appropriate, equal in elevation to the ſacred effuſions of pious rapture, and ſufficiently eaſy and familiar for deſcriptions of domeſtic life; ſkilful alike in ſoaring without effort, and deſcending without meanneſs. He who deſires to put into the hands of youth a poem, which, not deſtitute of poetical embelliſhments, is free from all matter of a licentious tendency, will find in the Taſk, a book adapted to his purpoſe. All is grave, majeſtic, and moral. A vein of ſober thinking pervades every page, and, in finiſhed poetry, deſcribes the inſufficiency and vanity of human purſuits. Not that he is always ſevere. He frequently enlivens the mind of his reader by ſportive deſcriptions, and by repreſenting, in elevated meaſures, ludicrous objects and circumſtances. The hiſtorical account he has given of chairs, in the firſt book of the Taſk, is a ſtriking ſpecimen of his powers of verſification, and of his talent for humour. The attention, however, is the moſt detained by thoſe paſſages in which the charms of rural life, and the endearments of domeſtic retirement are deſcribed. The Taſk abounds with incidents, introduced as Epiſodes, and interpoſing an agreeable relief to the grave and ſerious part of the poetry.

His John Gilpin is univerſally known, and is a ſportive piece of humour, of which any author may be proud. But his next great work was a tranſlation of the Iliad and Odyſſey into Miltonic verſe, in 2 vol. quarto, about the merits of which critics have been divided, principally from inſtituting, very abſurdly, a compariſon between it, and Pope's tranſlation. The merits of each are diſtinct and appropriate.

From his works, now ſo well known, and ſo generally read, we paſs to the melancholy termination of his life, a ſubject which cannot be contemplated without compaſſion and aſtoniſhment. It is with pain we relate, that the melancholy, which had in former years oppreſſed his mind, returned in his latter days with redoubled force, and was incurable by all human efforts. That ſo pious a man as Mr. Cowper, ſhould have been left to the horrors of deſpair as to his future happineſs, would be a myſtery, if we did not hope and believe that it was a diſeaſe. The circumſtances of his death have been very minutely related by Mr. Greatheed, of Olney, in a ſermon preached after his deceaſe. Mr. Greatheed has been cenſured for this, we know not why. But the ſermon is before the public, and each reader will judge for himſelf. As we have enlarged this article beyond the uſual limits of our Biographical Regiſter, for which we truſt no apology is due in the caſe of ſuch an ornament to our country, as Mr. Cowper, we ſhall conclude with a very ſhort extract from Mr. Greatheed's ſermon, near the cloſe of it.

'His ſympathizing and admiring

friends,' ſays Mr. Greatheed, 'were fondly cheriſhing a hope, that the diminution of his ſufferings, which was apparent for ſeveral ſucceſſive years, would at length reſult in his reſtoration to ſpiritual peace and joy. Although advanced in years, his health, by means of regular exerciſe and additional ſociety, was not only preſerved, but even ſeemed to improve, notwithſtanding the root of his bitterneſs evidently ſtill remained. Amid flattering expectations, the Lord permitted ſome afflicting events to revive his diſtreſs in all its force, and to plunge him again into diſtraction and deſperation. He declined all mental or bodily exertion, and rejected all attempts at friendly conſolation; nay, he conceived his tendereſt friends to be transformed by the powers of darkneſs into conſpirators againſt his welfare. Expecting every hour to be his laſt out of endleſs torments, nothing ſhort of that horrible proſpect could attract his notice for an inſtant. He refuſed, day after day, his neceſſary food; and imminent danger appeared of his ſpeedy departure out of life, in ſo dreadful a ſtate of mind. But the Lord, who had daſhed the riſing hopes of his friends, now mercifully diſappointed their fears. His period of mortality was extended; and means were unexpectedly afforded from his removal from this neighbourhood to a diſtant ſituation, (Eaſt Dereham) where he could remain under the continual care of an amiable young kinſman, who, with a tenderneſs beyond the common limits of filial affection, watched over the precious remnant of his life. Much of it elapſed without a probability of his reſtoration to the ſtate from which he had *laſt* fallen. His intellectual powers were ſo much affected by this relapſe, that he was only capable of attending to the moſt trivial ſubjects, even when willing to have his thoughts diverted from deſpair. Local advantages, the ſolicitous attention of affectionate friends, and the indefatigable aſſiduity of his only remaining companion, were at length rendered ſo far uſeful, that he was enabled to reſume his literary occupations, which were always, when purſued, a conſiderable, though partial, alluration of his diſtreſs.—

'During the laſt year, or two, of Mr. Cowper's life, his health and his ſtate of mind appeared to be as much reſtored, as for an equal time at any period during his long afflictions. Toward the cloſe of the paſt winter, he was however attacked by a bodily diſorder, which brought on a rapid decay. His young friend and relative, convinced that he would ſhortly exchange a world of infirmity and ſorrow for a far more exceeding and eternal weight of glory, repeatedly endeavoured to cheer him with the proſpect, and to aſſure him of the happineſs which awaited him. Still he refuſed to be comforted. "Oh ſpare me! Spare me! you know, you *know* it to be falſe!" was his only reply, with the ſame invincible deſpair to which he had ſo long been a prey. Early on the 25th of April, (1800) he ſunk into a ſtate of apparent inſenſibility, which might have been miſtaken for a tranquil ſlumber, but that his eyes remained half open. His breath was regular, though feeble; and his countenance and animal frame were perfectly ſerene. In this ſtate he continued for twelve hours, and then expired, without heaving his breath.'

THE GLEANER.

NUMBER XXXIII.

I WILLINGLY give place, in this day's paper, to the following whimſical communication, in which the author has made a very judicious mixture of the *utile* and the *dulce*.

To the AUTHOR of the GLEANER.

Sir,

Reading the other night, in a volume of Dr. Blair's Lectures on Rhe-

toric, I was ſurprized to meet with the following paſſage:

'Few languages are more *copious* than the Engliſh. In all grave ſubjects, eſpecially hiſtorical, critical, political, and moral, no writer has the leaſt reaſon to complain of the barrenneſs of our tongue. The ſtudious reflecting genius of the people, has brought together great ſtore of expreſſions on ſuch ſubjects, from every quarter. We are rich too in the language of poetry. Our poetical ſtyle differs widely from proſe, not in point of numbers only, but in the very words themſelves; which ſhows what a ſtock and compaſs of words we have it in our power to ſelect and employ, ſuited to thoſe different occaſions.'—

I ſay, ſir, that I was very much ſurprized to find ſuch an encomium on the *copiouſneſs* of our language in an author, whoſe judgment in ſuch matters cannot well be queſtioned.—I laid down the book, and pauſed—I took it up, and read the paſſage over again; but ſtill I found that all my experience went flatly againſt the learned author's opinion of the copiouſneſs of our language, and the more I conſider the matter, the more I am perſuaded that the majority are of my way of thinking, namely, that for any other, than the common purpoſes of life, our language is remarkably deficient, and that, however it may ſuit the purpoſes of mechanics and ſhopkeepers, thoſe who want it moſt are ever diſcovering its poverty and ſcarcity.

I truſt that, in proving this point, I need not go much farther than to the very familiar inſtance of our moſt celebrated orators—our Pitts, Foxes, Sheridans, &c. One would ſuppoſe, that if our language were ſo very copious as Dr. Blair pretends, ſuch men as theſe would make ample uſe of it in their harangues. One would think that if language came at the command of any body, it would be at the command of the firſt miniſter of ſtate, or if it were to be required, it would be acquired by men who have all their lives made public ſpeaking their particular ſtudy. Yet, ſo far is this from being the caſe, ſo wide are theſe conjectures from any foundation in fact, that no men complain ſo often as our great orators, that they *want words*; nor is it only at the middle or cloſe of a ſpeech of three or four hours that they make this complaint, for many of them begin with it, and whoever will look into our parliamentary regiſters, may ſee many an eloquent ſpeech commencing with—'Mr. Speaker, I really want words'——

If theſe be facts, and I think they cannot eaſily be contradicted, they make very much againſt the *copiouſneſs* of our language. I hope no one will object, that the language is ſufficiently copious, but that ſuch orators as I have mentioned know not how to come at its rich ſtores. Such an objection would border a little upon the ludicrous. Theſe orators I have mentioned (and others may be added to them) ſtand ſo high in the admiration of the world for eloquence, that any deficiency of reſearch on their part cannot well be gravely ſuggeſted, or ſeriouſly admitted. Men who, in the courſe of a life not very long, have gone over every word, noun, pronoun, adverb, participle, adjective, &c. in the dictionary, cannot be ſuſpected of conjuring up an artificial ſcarcity of words, unleſs they had found a real barrenneſs in the language. No—when they complain that they 'want words,' we are not only bound to believe the aſſertion, but alſo that it is no fault of their own.

But further; one would have naturally thought, that if our language were ſo *copious*, we ſhould not be at a loſs to give our opinion of ſuch a plain matter of fact, as a *victory*. But I will only appeal to the very laſt occurrence of this kind in our hiſtory, whether our great orators did not, to a man, declare, that they 'wanted words,' to deſcribe the high opinion they entertained of the valour of our ſeamen, &c. Nay, what is greatly

to the point, one of them poſitively aſſerted that there *were no words* that could do juſtice to the heroiſm of that day. Now, ſir, I humbly think, that if in the caſe of a naval victory, our language holds back, it muſt be from a conſciouſneſs of its own poverty and meanneſs, and that the deeds of ſuch men as Howe, St. Vincent, Duncan, and Nelſon, muſt be celebrated by the languages of *all nations*, in order to be celebrated as they ought. Surely, if any ſpecies of force, or influence, if either money, or parliamentary intereſt could have commanded the copiouſneſs of our language, they would have been on ſuch an occaſion as that to which I have alluded. And I confeſs, ſir, that this is with me a very ſerious conſideration. I could like to hear every tongue buſily at work in praiſing the inſtruments of our honour and ſecurity, inſtead of complaining of a want of words. If *dumbneſs* muſt follow our naval victories, pray let it be on the ſide of the *enemy*.

Our language, then, it is plain, is not copious enough for victory; whether it would ſucceed better in defeat, I do not chooſe to enquire; I would not wiſh even to ſuppoſe ſuch a ſtate of affairs; yet as far as I am able to judge from recollection of long paſt events in the laſt war, I am inclined to think it is not more copious in this caſe than in the other. On one or two occaſions of the unproſperous kind, I remember no *expreſſion* of the diſaſters, no diſplays of eloquence, but only a general murmuring and groaning, which, we all know, may be excited without any aid from language of any kind.

But to leave public affairs to wiſer heads, who I hope will conſider that *doing* is fully as neceſſary as *talking* about them, let me proceed to more familiar proofs, that our language is not ſo copious as the learned Dr. Blair has repreſented it. What are we to think of its copiouſneſs, when we ſo frequently find even the ladies at a loſs to expreſs themſelves? Surely, if any perſons could find words, it would be they in whom talking is ſo natural and ſo pleaſant, and to whom, it is ſaid, an extraordinary portion of the gift of ſpeech was given, by way of exerciſe, and as ſome compenſation for a ſedentary life. But when we find that *they* frequently 'want words,' when they ſtand moſt in need of them, and particularly in that moſt important article, courtſhip, we ſhall, I apprehend, be inclined to think that our language is very deficient in gallantry. So much in reality is this the caſe, that we know (perhaps all of us by experience) that we are obliged to ſupply its deficiencies by what we call the language of the eyes—a language, I grant, very expreſſive, but greatly too quiet and ſilent for any other purpoſes, and therefore, perhaps, leſs often uſed *after* marriage than before it. To this, we add occaſionally the language of the features, as in frowning, pouting, ſmiling, &c. &c. all which are ſo many ſupplements or apologies for a 'want of words.' Tears, alſo, are extremely uſeful, as they can be pretty eaſily commanded, and would perhaps be univerſally approved of, as the vehicle of thought, if it were not that they are apt to be unintelligible, and, in particular, that they make no diſtinction between joy and grief. Nay, I have known ſome, who began to expreſs themſelves in this way, ſo ſoon forget the thread of their argument, that by the time the handkerchief was applied once or twice, they declared they did not know what they were crying at. I do not mention this as any defect in the art of crying, becauſe men who uſe *words*, will often run on a long while, without knowing what they are talking about, where they began, or where they mean to leave off.

But it is not only in matters of courtſhip that our language is deficient. It is equally ſo in affairs of news, and thoſe little anecdotes of one's acquaintance, which it is pleaſant to relate over a glaſs of wine, or a cup of tea. I have known ſome very elo-

quent perſons in the art of ſtory-telling, who after having made as much uſe of the language as they could, leave off abruptly, and conſign the reſt of the ſtory to their *ſhoulders*. We are frequently indebted to a *ſhrug*, for the very pith and marrow of a good ſtory, and the Engliſh language being moſt mercifully deficient in words that cenſure character, we find that *reputations* are generally attacked by a ſhrug of the ſhoulders, a ſhake of the head, or a well-turned application of the finger longitudinally to the noſe.

I am aware, that in anſwer to all this it will be ſaid, that courtſhip, from its delicacy, does not admit of language; and that anecdotes, from their danger, are often obliged to be told in a language that cannot be put upon paper. With reſpect to the latter, although this may ſometimes be the caſe, we generally find that the ſtory is reduced to language as ſoon as words can be found, if they can be found at all, and that perhaps in the very next company where it is told. For this purpoſe, new words are invented, or circumlocutions adopted, all which ſhow the barrenneſs of a language, ſuch as *crim. con. faux pas —ſlip—demirep*, and many others, where it would appear that we have no words to give things their proper names, and, as the ſaying is, call 'a ſpade, a ſpade.' With reſpect to courtſhip, I will allow, that in company the lovers require no other language than that of the eyes, except perhaps a ſly *dodge* of the elbow, an *accidental* touch of the toe, or a tap on the ſhoulder, &c. Yet the deficiency of our language will appear very obvious when they are alone, and may be as eloquent as they pleaſe. I truſt many of your readers can recollect ſuch a ſituation. Did they not then 'want words,' and were perpetually declaring, if they ſaid any thing at all, (which is very ſeldom the caſe) that no words could do juſtice to their feelings, &c. and therefore they frequently abuſe our language as being poor and beggarly. Of this I beg leave to quote a remarkable inſtance, for the ſake of my argument, as well as for the ſake of ſuch of your readers as may be hereafter, or are at preſent, in this trying ſituation. It occurs in that admirable work, 'Hiſtory of Tom Jones.' Book XVIII, chapter 12, which contains the firſt meeting between Tom Jones and Sophia, after their many perils and dangers. One would have thought eloquence of ſome ſervice in ſuch a caſe, but let us hear what the author ſays:

'The lovers were now alone, and it will, I queſtion not, appear ſtrange to many readers, that thoſe who had ſo much to ſay to one another, when danger and difficulty attended their converſation; and who ſeemed ſo eager to ruſh into each other's arms, when ſo many bars lay in their way, now that with ſafety they were at liberty to ſay or do whatever they pleaſed, ſhould both remain for ſome time ſilent and motionleſs; inſomuch that a ſtranger of moderate ſagacity might have well concluded, they were mutually indifferent: but ſo it was, however ſtrange it may ſeem: both ſat with their eyes caſt downward on the ground, and for ſome minutes continued in perfect ſilence. Mr. Jones, during this interval, attempted once or twice to ſpeak, but was abſolutely incapable, muttering only, or rather ſighing out ſome broken words.'—

Perhaps ſome will ſay, this is only a novel, and the author might, in order to conceal his own deficiencies, make his characters dumb. But this cannot in any ſenſe be aſſerted of ſuch a writer as Fielding, than whom we have no author ſuperior in the happy talent of uſing proper words in proper places. *Lovers* will at once ſee the propriety of laying the blame on the actual ſcarcity in our language of words, ſuited to the occaſion; and I flatter myſelf that this is a very ſtrong point in favour of my argument.

It may now be aſked, how far I mean to carry my argument, and whether I mean to aſſert that our lan-

guage is utterly deficient in itſelf, or in compariſon with other languages? This is far from my intention. I have already allowed, that it is ſufficient for the common purpoſes of life, and for the general intercourſe between man and man in ſociety, for travelling, buying and ſelling, negociating, and every ſpecies of traffic. It is alſo, as Dr. Blair has aſſerted, ſufficiently copious for the purpoſe of *writers* upon any ſubject. But let it be remembered, that there is this wide difference between writing and ſpeaking, that the ſpeaker when he 'wants words,' has only to make the declaration, and it is allowed; nay, it is even converted into a very fine flouriſh of rhetoric. Poets are much indebted to it, eſpecially dramatic poets. But far otherwiſe is it with authors. He would be very ſcurrily treated in Paternoſter-row, who ſhould bring a quire of blank paper to his bookſeller, and tell him he 'wants words.' This would be a pretty ſpeculation for one of thoſe liberal Mæcenaſes. It is more probable, indeed, that the anſwer would be, 'if you want words, Mr. Author, you muſt go and find them,' for I never buy blank paper, unleſs from the ſtationer.

I ſhall not inſiſt further at preſent on this ſubject, although I might perhaps carry my notions of the poverty of the language even into ſome of the moſt common concerns of life—ſuch as borrowing *money*, or applying to the *great*. Moſt people are ſenſible of a 'want of words,' on ſuch occaſions, but leſt you may think that I abound too much in the article, I remain, ſir, yours, &c.

AMICUS.

On the USE *to be made of* OBJECTS *of* SENSE *in* INFANT EDUCATION.

[From 'Letters on Education,' by Eliſabeth Hamilton, Author of the Hindooh Rajah, and Memoirs of Modern Philoſophers.]

THE aſſociations which beget eſteem, or inſpire predelection, for certain objects or qualities, naturally preſent themſelves as a ſubject of proper conſideration. On the formation of theſe depend the ſtrength and virtue of the future character, which will be found to riſe or fall, or become wiſe or fooliſh, virtuous or vicious, *in exact proportion as the objects of eſteem are found worthy or unworthy of a rational and accountable being.*

I fear I may be thought to proceed upon a chimerical hypotheſis, when I refer theſe important aſſociations to the early age of which we are now treating; but let it be remembered, that we are ſtill ſpeaking of thoſe aſſociations which are rendered permanent, not ſo much by the ſtrength of the impreſſion, as by the frequency of repetition. Now it appears to me that thoſe we wiſh to remain permanent, cannot be too early impreſſed, or too frequently repeated; and that it is of the utmoſt conſequence that we proceed in the education of the heart and mind in an uniform tenor, never counteracting ourſelves, by teaching at one period of life what we wiſh untaught at another.

The pleaſurable ſenſation produced in early infancy by gaudy colours, by light, and ſound, is intended, by the wiſdom and goodneſs of Providence, as a ſource of happineſs and improvement. And here it is worthy of remark, that as each of the amiable paſſions of our nature—love, hope, gratitude, and joy—has a tendency to produce the benevolent affections; while hatred, revenge, &c. have all a tendency to produce malevolence; a ſchool of virtue is opened by Nature in the boſom of creation. For are not the firſt feelings of the mind thoſe of pleaſure? While the objects that inſpire delight are liberally ſcattered on every ſide. The helpleſſneſs of infancy naturally inſpires that compaſſionate tenderneſs, which, by its emphatic expreſſions, awakes the infant

heart to ſympathetic affection, while gratitude diſpoſes it to joy. Thus love, joy, gratitude, complacency, all unite in opening the heart to the impreſſions of virtue.

This, it appears to me, is the view we ought to take of the intentions of Nature (or rather of Nature's God) in forming the infant mind ſuſceptible of pleaſure from the objects of ſight and ſound, before the mental faculties have begun to open. And to this we may add another and important end; it was the deſign of Nature by theſe means (and Nature is never ſuperfluous in means) to accompliſh: by this pleaſing ſenſation, the mind is called to an examination of ſenſible objects, and where unthinking folly does not counteract the wiſe deſign by its fond and fooliſh interference, the rudiments of knowledge and experience are thus acquired.

Miſs Edgeworth's plan of an inſtitution for having ſervants educated to the care of children, is certainly excellent; but would it not be an improvement upon it, if young ladies, who are all brought up in the expectation of being wives and mothers, were to receive a few inſtructions concerning the nature of the duties they ought in theſe characters to fulfil? A few plain and rational notions concerning the proper management of children from the firſt ſtage of infancy would in all probability be little leſs uſeful than any of the accompliſhments on which they are taught to pique themſelves. Were young women of all ranks to be a little inſtructed in the nature of the human mind, and the developement of its faculties; were they to be informed of the great importance of obſerving the early tendencies of the diſpoſition, and made ſenſible how much theſe early tendencies depended on the judicious or injudicious management of infancy, we ſhould not behold young mothers treating their children as animated dolls, who were merely intended to gratify their vanity, and give variety to their amuſements.

For want of this neceſſary inſtruction, the wiſh to pleaſe the tender babe is often productive of its miſery. Obſerving its attention to ſound, we inceſſantly ſtun it with noiſe in order to promote its happineſs; and no ſooner do we obſerve its eyes fixed upon an object, than we hurry it away to ſome other which is in our opinion more gay or beautiful. By the jingle of bells and a bit of coral, we expect at all times to be able to withdraw its obſervation from whatever objects have attracted its curioſity. Often, indeed, do we tantalize it by a ſight of forbidden treaſure, and teize it into fretfulneſs by preſenting objects to its curioſity which it is not permitted to examine or inveſtigate by the only means of examination and inveſtigation in its power, feeling and taſte. Who has not ſympathiſed in the miſery of the poor child placed on his mother's lap after dinner, before a table covered with ſhining chryſtal? In vain does it ſtretch out the little hand, and ſtrain the eager eye, after the prohibited decanter. Even the leſs unwieldy drinking glaſs is forbidden to its touch; and while laviſh ſtreams of nonſenſe are poured on it from every ſide, the poor little creature, inſenſible to the fooliſh flattery, frets with mortification and diſappointment.

Would it not be better to preſent ſuch objects to the ſight of infants as may with ſafety be ſubjected to their curioſity? Nor when that is engaged, ſhould we ſuffer their attention to be perpetually interrupted by preſenting new objects to their obſervation. I have ſeen a child of ſix months old, with whom this mode of treatment had been obſerved, amuſe herſelf for half an hour, by noticing the flowers upon printed callico hangings, which, by the gravity of her looks, ſhe appeared to be comparing with the flowers of the fields.

Children brought up in the country have, in every ſtage and period, a great advantage over thoſe cooped up in towns; but in the earlier ſtages of

exiſtence, the children of the poor have even in the country a manifeſt advantage over thoſe of the rich. It is they alone who are permitted to feel and to enjoy the rich proviſion made by nature for their inſtruction in its full extent. Accordingly, we ſhall find that the children of peaſants of the loweſt claſs, nay, even the children of gypſies, have, at three years of age, a greater ſtock of ideas acquired from the examination of ſenſible objects, and are infinitely more capable of taking care of themſelves than children of the higher ranks at ſix.

On a woody and ſteep declivity of the Cotteſwold hills, where they project into the vale of Glouceſter, ſtands a ſmall cot inhabited by a poor widow, or rather a deſerted wife, who was left with two infants, for whoſe proviſion ſhe exerted herſelf in the labours of the field, and being a woman of remarkable ſtrength and dexterity, ſhe found conſtant employment with the neighbouring farmers. Soon as her youngeſt was weaned, ſhe conſigned him to the care of his brother, not yet three years of age. After having cut the brown bread which was to ſupply them with food for the day, and given neceſſary inſtructions to the elder boy, who was to act as cook, houſekeeper, and nurſe, ſhe left them generally about five in the morning, and ſeldom returned till night. At the time I firſt ſaw this little pair (which I frequently did every day for weeks together, when on a viſit to a family in the neighbourhood) the eldeſt was near five, and the youngeſt about two years of age. Each might have ſat for the picture of an infant Hercules. By living almoſt conſtantly in the open air, they had acquired a degree of hardineſs and vigour, ſeldom to be met with at that early age; and by experience had become ſo well acquainted with the objects around them, and with the nature of every danger to which they were expoſed, that though often on the edge of precipices that would make a fine lady ſhudder with horror, and where a fine little maſter would moſt probably have broken his neck, I never heard of their meeting with the ſmalleſt accident or diſaſter. When the hours of meal arrived, the elder, who never for a moment forſook his little charge, took him into the cot, and ſeating him in a corner, proceeded to make a fire of ſticks, which he managed with great dexterity. The brown bread was then crumbled down, boiled with water, and ſweetened with a very little very coarſe ſugar. This plain, but from its effects evidently wholeſome, viand he then placed on the floor, and ſitting down between it and his brother, gave him alternate ſpoonful with himſelf till all was finiſhed.

'Take care, Dan,' ſaid a lady who once happened to ſtep into the cottage at the beginning of this operation, 'Take care that you don't ſcald your brother's mouth.'

'No fear o that,' returned the boy, 'for Iſe always takes un firſt to ſelf.'

You will, perhaps, be at a loſs to conjecture the meaning of this long digreſſion, as you muſt be aſſured I do not intend to inſinuate that children ought to be thus left to the care of nature and chance; though from ſuch inſtances as the above, I think it evident that our over-abundant ſolicitude is in ſome reſpects injurious to the infant mind. Another, and perhaps in the opinion of ſome mothers, a more powerful argument for permitting children in ſome degree to exert their own energies, inſtead of entirely truſting their preſervation to the care of a ſervant, ariſes from the perſonal danger to which children, brought up in this ſtate of helpleſs dependance, are hourly expoſed. The child who is always watched, knows not how to make uſe of liberty, and runs the riſk of his life every time he is left to his own diſcretion. It is the maid's buſineſs to preſerve him from falling out of the window, or running into the fire, or the water; and the moment ſhe remits her vigilance, he is loſt.

Where people of fortune pique

themſelves upon helpleſſneſs and imbecillity as a mark of diſtinction, it is very natural that they ſhould wiſh their children to enjoy the ſame ſpecies of ſuperiority; but ſurely minds of a higher rank ought to conſider the real advantage of their children, as a point of more importance than the gratification of an idle vanity. If they carefully attend to the wiſe deſigns of Nature, and obſerve her laws, they will provide for their children that ſpecies of inſtruction which ſhe has qualified them to receive. If it appear to have been the deſign of Nature, in attaching pleaſurable ſenſations to light and colours, to attract the attention to the examination of ſenſible objects for the acquirement of experience; why ſhould we counteract her wiſe intention, by rendering that inſtinctive delight a mere inſtrument of vanity? Inſtead of obſerving the moment when the beauty of an object has ſufficiently excited the attention toward it, to proceed to the examination of its uſe and properties, we ſubſtitute beauty for utility, and make *pretty* the only criterion of worth. *Pretty*, in the language of the nurſery, is the only epithet of admiration. The *uſeful* is there held in contempt; and *good* only ſignifies what pleaſes the palate. Can we imagine that falſe aſſociations may not thus be formed, which are never after to be eradicated?

If we conſider it of any conſequence that the feelings of eſteem and complacency ſhould be attached to real worth, we ſhall not think the falſe aſſociations of the earlieſt infancy unworthy our attention. Much may be done in this way, while the mind is yet only capable of making obſervations on objects of ſenſe.

Even the toys of childhood may be rendered inſtrumental either to the wiſdom or the folly of the future character. When children have learned from frequent and conſtantly reiterated impreſſion to place an adventitious value upon trifles, is it to be ſuppoſed that their minds will be eaſily prepared for the inveſtigation of truth? But where, on the contrary, they have been from infancy accuſtomed only to ſuch objects as had in them ſome degree of utility, and which they have learned to appreciate according to the degree of utility they poſſeſſed; the mind will not only have the advantage of being free from prejudice, but a direction will have been given to the curioſity which will be found of important conſequence to the preceptor. As children advance in experience, and become capable of making ſome obſervations upon the tendency of actions in human conduct, it becomes more and more neceſſary to watch over their aſſociations with regard to the point in queſtion. Every thing then depends upon the conduct of thoſe around them; nor can we hope to teach them to appreciate that as eſtimable, which our conduct declares we do not ourſelves eſteem.

'We ought to love people who are good, and wiſe, and pious,' ſaid an old lady to her little grandſon; 'for you know, my dear, that God loves them, and that they will go to heaven.'

'And is lady ——, and lady ——, good and wiſe, and pious, grandmamma? And does God love them, and will they go to heaven?'

'I do not know about their goodneſs, my dear, but they are very genteel people, and keep the beſt company, and we need not trouble ourſelves about their goodneſs.'

'But I am ſure Mrs. —— is very good, and very wiſe, and very pious, too, for I heard both Dr. —— and you ſay ſo t'other day; but you never aſk her to fine dinners as you do lady ——, and lady ——; though now I remember ſhe was aſked next day *to eat up the fragments*, as my aunt Julia ſaid. And do you remember, grandmamma, how vexed you and aunt Julia were, when ſir John —— was let into ſuch company? And aunt Julia, you know, went over beſide ſir John, and never took any notice of Mrs. —— after he came in, nor ſpoke a word to her the whole even-

ing, but ſeemed quite aſhamed of her being there? Now if ſhe had told ſir John that ſhe was ſo wiſe and ſo good, and that God loved her, would he not have loved her too?'

'You know, my dear,' returns the fond grandmother, 'that ſir John is a man of faſhion, and people of his rank expect to meet only with people of ſtile, you know, like themſelves. And Mrs. —— has no great fortune, and keeps no carriage, and does not dreſs faſhionably, ſo that one does not like to introduce her into company. But be you good and wiſe, my dear, and every body will love *you*.'

While reſpect and eſteem for goodneſs, wiſdom, and piety, are thus profeſſed in *words*, but manifeſtly contradicted by the whole tenor of our actions, the impreſſion that will ultimately prevail is obvious. The more we examine this point, the more reaſon ſhall we have to be convinced, *that the education which is not conducted upon conſiſtent principles, never can be productive of any good.* It is in vain that we labour to reconcile the worſhip of God and Mammon. If we teach the firſt by our lips, and the latter by our lives, we may aſſure ourſelves that the latter only will be taught effectually. Had the lady I have mentioned above ſtudied conſiſtency, her leſſon to her grandſon would have run as follows:

'You ſee, my dear boy, the advantage of riches, which produces people reſpect and eſteem, therefore you muſt by all means ſtrive to become rich. But riches alone are not ſufficient, for very vulgar people may become rich; but you muſt likewiſe be faſhionable, and keep faſhionable company, and learn to like what faſhionable people do; and to hate every thing, and every perſon, that is vulgar and ungenteel. You muſt always keep it in remembrance, that if you are a man of faſhion, you will gain admittance into *the beſt of company*, though you have no good quality to recommend you; nay, though you are guilty of the moſt atrocious ſins, provided they be the ſins of a gentleman. For you ſee, my dear, how my lord ——, and Mr. ——, and ſir ——, are ſought after, and reſpected, and careſſed by people of faſhion, though we all know that they have been guilty of murder, and adultery, and ſeduction; that they are tyrannical in their diſpoſitions, unjuſt in their dealings, and equally capricious and fooliſh in every part of their conduct. But ſtill they are *men of faſhion*, and on that account are received into the beſt of company. Make it therefore, your endeavour, my dear, to be a man of faſhion, and every body that is worth knowing will love you.' Every word here ſaid would have been ſo correſpondent with the aſſociations already formed, and perpetually reiterated, that the mind would not have been bewildered between two oppoſite principles of action. All would have been plain and conſiſtent.

Is any faſhionable mother ſhocked at the idea of repeating this leſſon to her child *in words?* Let her reflect whether ſhe may not every day have repeated it far more forcibly by her conduct; and let her remember, that thoſe aſſociations which lead to preference or contempt, are not the work of a few ſet leſſons, but are formed by ſympathy, imitation, and habit.

Believing in the truth of the obſervation with which I concluded the laſt ſentence, I ſhould here, were theſe letters intended for your private peruſal, cloſe the ſubject at once; but if they are given to the public, I am, alas! too ſenſible that they may be read by many mothers, whoſe families are conducted upon principles very different from thoſe which regulate yours! From the earlieſt dawn of reaſon, the children of my friend muſt learn an eſteem for virtue, and an averſion and contempt for vice, from the tenor of all that is preſented to their obſervation. They uniformly behold reſpect and eſteem the attendants of wiſdom and worth. The reſpect of civility they indeed ſee given to rank, but they ſoon learn to diſ-

tinguiſh it from that *reſpect of the heart* which they ſee reſerved for ſuperiority of worth. They are taught leſſons of benevolence, not by words but by actions. The ſympathies of their hearts are thus imperceptibly turned into the current of virtue; while religion appears not as a cold and contrary running ſtream into which they muſt occaſionally dip, but as the ſweet and delightful fountain of all that is good and amiable!

In what I have then yet to add, you my friend, and thoſe who are like you, will only find cauſe of ſelf-congratulation. You will, perhaps, ſee reaſon to ſet a higher value upon the advantages enjoyed by your children than has before occurred to you; and while you reflect on theſe with the gratitude ſo natural to your heart, may it be the boon of the God of mercies to confirm and realiſe the delightful hopes that ſpring in your maternal boſom! Adieu.

COXE'S HISTORICAL TOUR IN MONMOUTHSHIRE.

The following Extracts, from this ſplendid Work, will give our Readers ſome Idea of the Variety of Entertainment, and taſteful Reſearch, evinced in this Tour, and which correſpond ſo well to the acknowledged Fame the Author has acquired by his former Works.

WOODEN BRIDGE OVER THE USK —SINGULAR ESCAPE OF MRS. WILLIAMS.

THE wooden bridge over the Uſk may be conſidered as ſimilar to that erected by the Romans; the frame is not unlike the carpentry of Cæſar's bridge over the Rhine, which he has deſcribed in his Commentaries, and of which Stukely has given a plan, in the ſecond volume of his Itinerarium Curioſum. The floor, ſupported by ten lofty piers, is level, and divided by poſts and rails into rooms or beds of boards, each twelve feet in length; the apparently looſe and diſjointed ſtate of the planks, and the clattering noiſe which they make under the preſſure of a heavy weight, have not unfrequently occaſioned alarm to thoſe who are unuſed to them. Some travellers, from a ſuperficial view of the ſtructure, have aſſerted that the planks are placed looſe, to admit the tide through their interſtices when it riſes above the bridge, and which would, if they were fixed, force them from the frame and carry them away. But in fact the tide has never been known to riſe above the bridge, nor was the flooring conſtructed to obviate this inconvenience. Formerly the planks were faſtened at each extremity with iron nails; but the wood being liable to ſplit, and the nails frequently forced up, by the elaſtic agitation of the beams, under the preſſure of heavy carriages, the planks were ſecured from riſing by horizontal rails, faſtened to the poſts, and prevented from ſlipping ſideways, by a peg at each end, within the rail.

The height of the water, at extraordinary tides, exceeds thirty feet, but though it has never riſen above the floor, yet the united body of a high tide, and the floods to which the Uſk is ſubject, have been known to carry away parts of the bridge. An accident of this kind, which happened on the 29th of October 1772, occaſioned a ſingular event, to which I ſhould not have given credit, had it not been authenticated by the moſt reſpectable teſtimony.

As Mrs. Williams, wife of Mr. Edward Williams, brazier, was returning from the village of Caerleon to the town, at eleven o'clock at night, with a candle and lantern, the violence of the current forced away four piers, and a conſiderable part of the bridge. On a fragment of this maſs, conſiſting of an entire room, with the beams, poſts, and flooring, ſhe was hurried

down the river; but preſerved ſufficient preſence of mind to ſupport herſelf by the railing. On arriving near St. Julian's, the candle was extinguiſhed; ſhe immediately ſcreamed for help, and was heard by ſeveral perſons, who ſtarted out of their beds to aſſiſt her; but the violence of the ſtream had already hurried her beyond their reach. During this time ſhe felt little apprehenſion, as ſhe entertained hopes of being delivered by the boatmen of Newport; her expectations were increaſed by the numerous lights which ſhe diſcerned in the houſes, and ſhe accordingly redoubled her cries for aſſiſtance, though without effect.

The fragment on which ſhe ſtood being broken to pieces againſt a pier of Newport bridge, ſhe fortunately beſtrode a beam, and after being detained for ſome minutes by the eddies at the bridge, was rapidly hurried along toward the ſea. In this perilous ſituation ſhe reſigned herſelf to her approaching fate, and addreſſing herſelf to heaven, exclaimed, 'Oh, Lord, I truſt in thee; thou alone canſt ſave me!'

About a mile from Newport, ſhe diſcerned a glimmering light in a barge which was moored near the ſhore, and redoubling her cries, was heard by the maſter of the veſſel. After hailing her, and learning her ſituation, he cried out, 'Keep up your ſpirits, and you will ſoon be out of danger;' then leaping into the boat, with one of his men, rowed toward the place from whence the ſcreams proceeded; but ſome time elapſed before he overtook her, at a conſiderable diſtance from the anchorage of his barge. The night was ſo dark, that they could not diſcern each other, and the ſurf ſwelling violently, the maſter repeated his exhortations, charged her to be calm, and not attempt to quit her ſtation. Fortunately a ſudden diſperſion of the clouds enable him to laſh the beam fore and aft to the boat. At this moment, however, her preſence of mind forſook her, and eagerly attempting to throw herſelf forward ſhe was checked by the oaths of the ſeamen, who were at length enabled to heave her into the boat; but could not diſengage themſelves from the beam, till they had almoſt reached the mouth of the Uſk. This being effected, not without great difficulty, they rowed to the ſhore, and embayed themſelves till the firſt dawn of the morning, when they conveyed her in the boat to Newport.

Though Mrs. Williams was in an advanced ſtate of pregnancy, ſhe received ſo little injury from this perilous accident, that after a few hours repoſe ſhe returned to Caerleon.

I have been thus minute in detailing the particulars of this providential eſcape, becauſe it has been related with ſo many improbable circumſtances, as to occaſion doubts of its reality. For the truth of this narrative, I can adduce the teſtimony of Mr. Jones of Clytha, Mr. Kemeys, of Mayndee, and the Rev. Mr. Evans; all of whom ſoon afterward converſed with Mrs. Williams. To Mr. Evans, in particular, ſhe uniformly repeated the ſame account, and confirmed it on her death bed, with the moſt ſolemn aſſeverations.

The diſintereſted conduct of the maſter and boatman ought not to be omitted: notwithſtanding the peril to which they were expoſed, and their active exertions, they repeatedly declined the liberal recompence offered by Mr. Williams.

ANECDOTE OF MR. PROGER.

THE houſe (at Werndee) which has been lately repaired, for the uſe of the tenant, was in ſuch a ſtate of dilapidation, that the father of the laſt proprietor, Mr. Proger, was in danger of periſhing under the ruins of the ancient manſion, which he venerated even in decay. As we examined the houſe, Mr. Dinwoody related an anecdote of this Mr. Proger, which exhibits his pride of anceſtry in a ſtriking point of view. A ſtranger, whom he accidentally met at the foot of the

Skyrrid, made various inquiries reſpecting the country, the proſpects, and the neighbouring houſes, and among others, aſked, 'Whoſe is this antique manſion before us?'—'That, ſir, is Werndee, a very ancient houſe; for *out* of it *came* the earls of Pembroke, of the firſt line, and the earls of Pembroke, of the ſecond line; the lords Herbert, of Cherbury, the Herberts of Coldbrook, Rumney, Caerdiff, and York; the Morgans of Acton; the earl of Hunſdon; the Jones' of Treowen and Lanarth, and all the Powells. *Out* of this houſe alſo, by the female line, *came* the dukes of Beaufort.'—'And pray, ſir, who lives there now?'—'I do, ſir.'—'Then pardon me, and accept a piece of advice: *come out* of it yourſelf, or it will tumble and cruſh you.'

IRON-WORKS AT ABERGAVENNY.

IN the courſe of my expeditions I three times viſited the iron-works of Blaenavon, recently eſtabliſhed in the vicinity of Abergavenny, which form a new and intereſting object in the tour of Monmouthſhire.

At ſome diſtance, the works have the appearance of a ſmall town, ſurrounded with heaps of ore, coal, and limeſtone, and enlivened with all the buſtle and activity of an opulent and increaſing eſtabliſhment. The view of the buildings, which are conſtructed in the excavations of the rocks, is extremely picturesque, and heightened by the volumes of black ſmoke emitted by the furnaces. While my friend ſir Richard Hoare was engaged in ſketching a view of this ſingular ſcene, I employed myſelf in examining the mines and works.

This ſpot and its vicinity produce abundance of iron, with coal and limeſtone, and every article neceſſary for ſmelting the ore: the veins lie in the adjacent rocks, under ſtrata of coal, and are from three and a half to ſeven or eight inches in thickneſs; they differ in richneſs, but yield, upon an average, not leſs than forty-four pounds of pig iron to one hundred weight of ore. The principal part of the iron, after being formed into pigs, is conveyed by means of the rail-road and canal to Newport, from whence it is exported.

The ſhafts of the mines are horizontal, penetrating one below the other, and under the coal-ſhafts; iron rail-roads are conſtructed to convey the coal and ore; which are puſhed as far as the ſhafts are worked, and gradually carried on as the excavations are extended: the longeſt of theſe ſubterraneous paſſages penetrates not leſs than three quarters of a mile. The coal is ſo abundant as not only to ſupply the fuel neceſſary for the works, but large quantities are ſent to Abergavenny, Pont y Pool, and Uſk.

Although theſe works were only finiſhed in 1789, three hundred and fifty men are employed, and the population of the diſtrict exceeds a thouſand ſouls. The hollows of the rocks and ſides of the hills are ſtrewed with numerous habitations, and the heathy grounds converted into fields of corn and paſture. Such are the wonder-working powers of induſtry when directed by judgment!

The want of habitations for the increaſing number of families, as occaſioned an ingenious contrivance: a bridge being thrown acroſs a deep dingle for the ſupport of a rail-road leading into a mine, the arches, which are ten in number, have been walled up, and formed into dwellings; the bridge is covered with a penthouſe roof, and backed by perpendicular rocks, in which the mines are excavated. Numerous workmen continually paſs and repaſs, and low cars, laden with coal, or iron ore, roll along with their broad and grooved wheels; theſe objects loſing themſelves under the roof of the bridge, again emerging, and then diſappearing in the ſubterraneous paſſages of the rock, form a ſingular and animated picture, not unlike the moving figures in a camera obſcura.

The mountainous diſtrict which contains theſe mineral treaſures, is held by the earl of Abergavenny, un-

der a leaſe from the crown. It was formerly let to the family of Hanbury, of Pont y Pool, for leſs than 100l a year; and as the value of the mines was not ſufficiently appreciated, no works were conſtructed; but the maſſes of ore found near the ſurface were conveyed to the forges of Pont y Pool. Soon after the expiration of the term, the diſtrict was granted by another leaſe to Hill and company, who began theſe works in 1788, and expended forty thouſand pounds before any return was made; this expence, however, has been amply repaid by the produce.

On conſidering the riſe and rapid progreſs of the iron manufactories in this diſtrict, as well as in the neighbouring mountains of Monmouthſhire and Glamorganſhire, it is a matter of wonder that theſe mineral treaſures ſhould have been ſo long neglected. This wonder will increaſe, when it is known that iron was manufactured in this country at a period beyond the reach of tradition or hiſtory. Large heaps of ſlug or cinder have been repeatedly diſcovered, ſome of which are evidently the product of bloomeries, the moſt ancient method of fuſing iron; in other places are traced the ſites of furnaces long diſuſed, of which no account of their foundation can be collected. The appearance of theſe iron cinders, and the veſtiges of ancient furnaces, indicate that many parts of this mountainous diſtrict, now wholly bare, were formerly covered with large tracts of wood; charcoal being the only ſpecies of fuel originally uſed in the operation of ſmelting, both in the bloomeries and furnaces. This conjecture is corroborated by numerous names, alluding to woods and foreſts, in places which have never been known to produce trees; and is ſtill farther aſcertained by the diſcovery of trunks and branches, with their leaves, under the boggy ſoil in the vicinity of Blaenavon, and on the neighbouring hills.

The lands being cleared, and the foreſts neglected, their deſtruction was haſtened by numerous herds of goats, maintained in theſe mountainous regions; the want of fuel occaſioned the gradual decline of the bloomeries and furnaces, and for a conſiderable period little or no iron was manufactured.

About forty years ago the iron-works ſuddenly revived, from the beneficial diſcovery of making pig-iron with pit-coal, inſtead of charcoal, which was ſoon afterward followed by the improvement of manufacturing even bar-iron by means of pit-coal: hence a diſtrict, which contained ſuch extenſive mines of ore and coal, prodigious quantities of limeſtone, and numerous ſtreams of water, could not fail of becoming the ſeat of many flouriſhing eſtabliſhments. Beſide theſe local advantages, the progreſs of the manufactories has been powerfully aided by the application of mechanics; particularly by the uſe of the ſteam-engine, and the great improvement of water-machines; but in no inſtance have they derived more advantage than from the adoption of rollers, inſtead of forge-hammers, now uſed for the formation of bar-iron, with a degree of diſpatch, as well as exactneſs, before unknown. From this concurrence of circumſtances, the ſucceſs has been no leſs rapid than extraordinary: fifteen years ago the weekly quantity of pig-iron made in this part of Monmouthſhire, and in the contiguous diſtrict of Glamorganſhire, did not exceed ſixty tons; at preſent it ſcarcely falls ſhort of ſix hundred; at that period no bar-iron was manufactured; but now the quantity amounts weekly to more than three hundred tons. The works are ſtill rapidly increaſing in extent and importance, and appear likely to ſurpaſs the other iron manufactories throughout the kingdom.

In the vicinity of Blaenavon we obſerved the proceſs of making a rail-road, ſo called becauſe it is formed by a kind of frame with iron rails, or bars, laid lengthwiſe, and faſtened or cramped by means of croſs-bars. The ground being excavated, about ſix feet in breadth, and two in depth, is ſtrew-

ed over with broken pieces of ſtone, and the frame laid down; it is compoſed of rails, ſleepers, or croſs-bars, and under-ſleepers. The rail is a bar of caſt iron, four feet in length, three inches thick, and one and a half broad; its extremities are reſpectively concave and convex, or, in other words, are morticed and tenanted into each other, and faſtened at the ends by two wooden pegs to a croſs-bar called the ſleeper. This ſleeper was originally of iron, but experience having ſhown that iron was liable to ſnap or bend, it is now made of wood, which is conſiderably cheaper, and requires leſs repair. Under each extremity of the ſleeper is a ſquare piece of wood, called the under-ſleeper, to which it is attached by a peg. The frame being thus laid down and filled with ſtones, gravel, and earth, the iron rails form a ridge above the ſurface, over which the wheels of the cars glide by means of iron-grooved rims three inches and a half broad.

This is the general ſtructure of the road when carried in a ſtraight line; at the junction of two roads, and to facilitate the paſſage of two cars in oppoſite directions, moveable rails, called turn-rails, are occaſionally uſed, which are faſtened with ſcrews inſtead of pegs, and may be puſhed ſidewiſe.

The level of the ground it taken with great exactneſs, and the declivity is in general ſo gentle as to be almoſt imperceptible *: the road, ſometimes conveyed in a ſtraight line, ſometimes winding round the ſides of precipices, is a picturesque object; and the cars filled with coals or iron, and gliding along occaſionally without horſes, impreſs the traveller, who is unaccuſtomed to ſuch ſpectacles, with pleaſing aſtoniſhment. The expence of forming theſe roads is very conſiderable, varying according to the nature of the ground, and the difficulty or facility of procuring proper materials; it is ſeldom leſs than a thouſand pounds per mile, and ſometimes exceeds that ſum.

The cars, from the ſolidity of their ſtructure, and the quantity of iron uſed in the axle-tree and wheels, when loaded weigh not leſs than three tons and a half; they are drawn by a ſingle horſe, and the driver ſtands on a kind of footboard behind, and can inſtantaneouſly ſtop the car by means of a lever and a drop, which falls between the wheels, and ſuſpends their motion. In places where the declivity is more rapid than uſual, the horſe is taken out, and the car impelled forward by its own weight.

* The perpendicular fall of the ground is commonly no more than an inch in a yard, and ſcarcely ever more than three inches.

THE GUILT OF POVERTY.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

I THINK I have diſcovered the true reaſon of that extravagance in living, which is ſo particularly inconvenient in hard times, like the preſent, and againſt which all prudent perſons and moral writers have offered abundance of cautions and advice. I know that many other reaſons than what I am about to offer have been aſſigned, ſuch as that it is the faſhion to be extravagant, and even the faſhion to be ruined; but although extravagance reigns very much like a faſhion, yet by making uſe of the word faſhion, we learn nothing, becauſe in general it means nothing. Thus when we ſay it is the faſhion to wear muſlin or ſilk, we only mean that a great many perſons wear thoſe articles, but we aſſign no reaſon for it, for faſhion is utterly unacquainted with reaſon, and would not wiſh to be connected with any thing ſo ſettled and unvariable. Faſhion enacts laws,

but they are always without preambles. We ſee the law, and can feel the penalty of trangreſſion, but we know not the cauſe of the one or the other.

I flatter myſelf, however, Mr. Editor, that although extravagance may be reckoned a faſhion, I can trace its origin to a more honourable ſource. It ſtrikes me that it ariſes entirely from the dread of guilt. Of guilt? What guilt? Why the greateſt of all. The guilt of poverty. I know not if you have obſerved it, but there is no ſuſpicion which moſt men are ſo deſirous to wipe off, as the ſuſpicion of being poor, and as to prevent our being thought hypocrites, we often pretend to countenance crimes for which we have no reliſh, ſo to avoid being thought poor, we frequently ſquander our riches in attempts to be thought more wealthy than we are.

But ſome will ſay, with the woman in the play, 'Surely it is not a ſin to be poor.' That queſtion I ſhall not at preſent reſolve, but if the general endeavour be to avoid the appearance of poverty, if a man bluſhes deeper on its being diſcovered that he has an empty purſe than he would if diſcovered that he had an empty head, or even an indifferently furniſhed heart, I think we are bound to conclude that there is ſomething very *bad* in the reality of poverty. What this ſomething is, we are not told, nor whether it bears any relation to thoſe *other* crimes, for which men may be puniſhed by law. But we muſt conclude from its effects that it is particularly obnoxious, ſince to avoid the moſt diſtant ſuſpicion of it, we are willing to vindicate our characters at any expence, and I may ſay at any riſk. This therefore I take to be the genuine cauſe of that extravagance in the mode of living, which expoſes ſo many very worthy perſons to the cenſure of your retired moraliſts, and your mighty prudent, good ſort of people, who take care of the main chance, and do not regard what the world ſays of them.

Still it may be objected that poverty cannot be conſidered as a crime, becauſe there are many perſons who are ſo far from avoiding that they ſeem to court the imputation of it, by a ſhabby dreſs, and mode of living, as if they could not afford the moſt common neceſſaries of life. There undoubtedly is a claſs of this ſort, but I think they are not numerous enough to be any thing but an exception to the general rule. If poverty be a crime, we cannot account for ſome perſons being ſo perverſe in their way of thinking as to deem it a virtue. Perhaps even *they* may think it a crime, and yet not refuſe to be thought guilty of it, as we know there is a deſcription of men, 'who glory in their ſhame,' and who can defraud in various ways, overreach, monopolize, and do various other bad actions, and yet ſay they are only purſuing their lawful buſineſs. And this I think muſt be allowed, that theſe who have a deſire to put on the appearance of poverty, contrary to all the faſhion and cuſtom around them, muſt poſſeſs a very extraordinary taſte, or be ſuſpected of ſome very ſiniſter deſigns in wearing ſo prepoſterous a diſguiſe. The whole circumſtance, however, will not materially affect the general poſition I have laid down—that the fear of being ſuſpected of poverty is the principal cauſe of extravagance.

If this be conceded to me, it will ſtill remain to be conſidered whether there are not ſome ſmall diſadvantages attending this ſo common wiſh to avoid the imputation of poverty. And, firſt, I am humbly of opinion that there is one effect of the political kind, which we have long and juſtly been taught to abhor, I mean, that the diſplay of extravagance has a tendency to eſtabliſh the abominable and abſurd *principal of equality*, which our enthuſiaſtic neighbours, in the fulneſs of their anarchical zeal, tried

without effect. This diſplay of extravagance, in order to do away the imputation of poverty muſt begin ſomewhere. Suppoſe it begins with A. and A. by a ſeries of ſplendid profuſion has been unanimouſly acquitted of the crime of poverty. B. then follows, and ſenſible of the importance of an honourable acquittal, gives a cloſe imitation of A. C. follows B. and in like manner. But if one of the alphabet, or in other words, of the circle of acquaintance, falls off in his imitation, what is the conſequence? He is perhaps acquitted, but the acquittal comes ſo dry from the jury, and ſo lifeleſs, and has ſo much the appearance of a ſpecial verdict, or a reference to arbitration, that the ſuſpicion is rather increaſed than diminiſhed. Every man therefore wiſhes to ſhow that he has an *equal* ſenſibility to the vile imputation of poverty, and conſequently muſt give proofs *equally* elegant, ſplendid, and ſtriking, of his innocence. Now if this has not a tendency to eſtabliſh a ſyſtem of equality as *abſurd* as that for which our mad politicians ſome time ago contended. I know not what can have ſuch a tendency, unleſs ſome ſpeculator ſhould propoſe that tall and ſhort men be made of the ſame length, by lopping off the difference from the former.

Another ſmall diſadvantage in the dread of poverty is, that a greater diſgrace is brought on it than it really deſerves, and that our opinion on the ſubject becomes ſo far confuſed, that we do not diſcriminate with ſufficient accuracy, between the fear of poverty and the ſhame of it. The conſequence of this ſmall miſtake is, that we often feel the *ſhame* where we are rather fooliſhly above the *fear* of becoming poor, which naturally leads me to

A third ſmall diſadvantage in the ſyſtem, and that is, our frequently taking ſuch ſteps to prevent poverty, as have a direct tendency to bring it on. And as I have traced extravagance to ſo very honourable a ſource as the abhorrence of guilt, I hope the extravagant will not take it amiſs, if I add this by way of caution. Experience, I am certain will amply confirm the truth of it, and ſomehow or other, notwithſtanding the ſupreme power of faſhion and cuſtom, the world has got into this way of thinking, and is apt to be very watchful over thoſe perſons who affect ſo eagerly to be thought rich, juſt as they watch the conduct of thoſe who pretend to be more religious than their neighbours. Here, therefore, we have ſuſpicion itſelf ſuſpected, and I know not what confuſion may ariſe. Certain it is that the equality above mentioned muſt in many caſes have a direct tendency to produce what is ſo much dreaded, for how can 500l a year pretend to keep up with 5000l?

To prevent this ſhocking cataſtrophe, it may perhaps be worth while to enquire whether poverty be really the crime it is generally ſuppoſed. I imagine that our logic here is faiſe—We ſay,

> All crimes are to be avoided,
> Poverty is a crime.
> *Ergo*, Poverty is to be avoided.

Here we adopt the concluſion, by neglecting to prove the *minor*. We ought therefore to be cautious how we increaſe the number of crimes, ſince to avoid the imputation of only one new offence, we muſt neceſſary be at more expence than it would take to keep all the laws and ſtatutes of the kingdom, and the ten commandments into the bargain.

I hope, Mr. Editor, theſe hints, however deſultory, will not be thrown away. We live in an age when, as the claſſic has it, *quædam docenda, quædam inculcanda*, ſome things are to be taught, and ſome repeated until they are *inculcated*.

I am, ſir, yours, &c.

AMICUS.

EXTRACTS *from* PENNANT'S JOURNEY *from* LONDON *to the* ISLE *of* WIGHT.

THE ENGLISH NAVY IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

TILL the reign of Henry VII, the naval force of England was either hired from the merchant, foreign or native, or ſupplied by the cinque and other ports of the kingdom; but the navy was under no ſort of regulation: the bargain was made with the firſt, or the demand made from the laſt, according to their different aſſeſſments. Some of the veſſels were of vaſt ſize; ſuch was the Chriſtopher, one of thoſe engaged in the celebrated victory off Sluys, gained over the French in 1340; but we know nothing concerning either the building or the ſhipwrights. The ſails of the royal ſhips were moſt ſplendid; thoſe of the veſſel which carried Richard II, were of white ſilk, richly embroidered with a golden ſun. In this ſplendid reign there was an emulation between France and England, which ſhould excel in this ſpecies of folly.—'Every man,' ſays old Grafton, 'helped to make proviſion for other, and to garniſhe and bewtifie their ſhippes, and to paynt them with their armes, and to advance and make them a glorious ſhewe to the whole worlde. Painters, at that time, were well ſet on worke, and the time was to them very profitable; for they had whatſoever they deſyred, and yet there could not enow of them be gotten for money. They made banners, penons, ſtandards of ſilk, ſo ſumptuous and comely that it was a maruelle to beholde.

'Alſo they peynted the maſtes of their ſhippes from the one ende to the other, glittering with golde, and deuiſes and armes that was maruelous ryche; and eſpecially (ſayth Froiſſart) as it was tolde me, the lorde Guy of Tremoy II, ſo decked, garniſhed and bewtified his ſhip with peynting and colours that it coſt him two thouſande frankes of French money, that is more than ccxxij pound of the current money of Englande. And in lyke manner did every lorde of Fraunce ſet foorth his deuiſe and ſhew.'

It is from ſuch imagery that Mr. Gray formed his beautiful deſcription of the reign of that unhappy monarch, proſperous in the beginning, and moſt dreadful in its concluſion:

'Fair laughs the morn, and ſoft the zephyr blows,
While proudly riding o'er the azure realm,
In gallant trim the gilded veſſel goes,
Youth on the prow, and pleaſure at the helm;
Regardleſs of the ſweeping whirlwind's ſway,
That, huſh'd in grim repoſe, expects his evening prey.'

Henry VII was the firſt of our monarchs who may be ſuppoſed to have formed a royal dock. He it was who improved the fortifications of Portſmouth, after they had been begun by Edward IV, and continued by Richard III. This makes it probable that he here built the famous ſhip the Great Harry, which, ſays Stow, coſt 14,000l, the ſame ſum which he had expended on his beautiful chapel in Weſtminſter Abbey. The ſhip was built about the year 1503, and was burnt by accident at Woolwich, in Auguſt 1553.

His ſon, Henry VIII, may be called the founder of the Engliſh navy: he began with building the great ſhips the Regent and the Sovereign. The firſt was loſt in an engagement off Breſt, in 1512: that gallant gentleman, ſir Thomas Knevet, grappled with the Cordelier, in which the French admiral had hoiſted his flag; both took fire, and blew up with their commanders and ſixteen hundred brave ſeamen: both fleets retired inſtantly, terrified by the dreadful ſcene, without offering to continue the engagement. Henry, to repair the loſs, built the Great Henry Grace de Dieu, of far greater bulk than the Regent. This ſhip is twice exhibited to us in painting. The firſt is in a great pic-

ture I had an opportunity of ſeeing in one of the lower apartments in Windſor Caſtle. It repreſents the king ſetting ſail from Dover for Calais, for the celebrated interview between him and Francis 1, between Guines and Ardres, in 1520, called *Le Champ de Drap d'Or*. Henry had caught the vain magnificence of Richard II: the ſails and pendents of his ſhip were of cloth of gold, damaſked; all his ſuite of ſhip and men were equally ſplendid, for the chief nobility of the realm attended. I muſt refer the reader to the minute deſcription given by that accurate antiquarian, John Topham, eſq. *. I ſhall only add, that the land ſcenery is alſo repreſented, of Dover, and the harbour; its forts, Arch-cliff, and the Black Bulwark; and, finally, the diſtant view of France, and the city of Calais. The ſecond † is one of the celebrated pictures at Cowdray. [While I write, I am ſhocked with the news, that the houſe itſelf, and the whole of that invaluable collection, is now no more, having, on September 24, 1793, been conſumed by fire.] * In the firſt picture, as Mr. Walpole obſerves, his ſhips were as ſumptuous as Cleopatra's galley on the Cydnus. In this they were, as the time required, fitted with all the neceſſaries of war. His great friends, Francis and Henry, had forgot their warm embraces on Le Champ de Drap d'Or. They quarrelled, and went to war: Francis ſent a vaſt fleet under D'Annabaut, admiral of France, who came off Bembridge point in the Iſle of Wight, and from thence ſtretched along the ſhore to St. Helen's, on July 18, 1544. The Engliſh fleet, under viſcount Liſle in the Great Harry, anchored off Spithead, to cover the entrance into Portſmouth; not only to defend it, but, if poſſible, to engage the French to embarraſs themſelves by following him into the narrow paths amid the ſand-banks. The French gallies often came to inſult our great ſhips to provoke them to come out, but to no purpoſe. A cannonade was continued on both ſides during two days; and the French pretend that they ſunk the Mary Roſe, a ſhip ſecond in ſize to the Henry Grace de Dieu: certain it is that ſhe was ſunk, and her commander ſir George Carew and near ſix hundred men were drowned. But this accident was owing to ſome awkward manœuvre. She was overladen with guns, ſome were unbreeched, and her port-holes left open; ſo, by an unfortunate heeling, ſhe filled with water, and went to the bottom. The French, finding they could make no impreſſion on our ſhips, after plundering the Iſle of Wight, retired to their own coaſts. Henry, on the firſt noiſe of the invaſion, came in perſon, and appears in the piece on horſeback, and behind him his great favourite and lieutenant the duke of Suffolk, and ſir Anthony Brown, maſter of the horſe. They are riding out of Portſmouth, and entering Southſea Caſtle (a fortreſs of Henry's raiſing) in their way to the camp, which lay beyond.

The great ſhips of war had four maſts: they had port-holes for the cannon, which is ſaid to have been at this time a novelty; for, before, the few they had lay upon the deck, on the prow, or on the poop.

CARISBROOK—ATTORNIES.

IT is ſaid that the inhabitants uſed to boaſt that they had not among them monks, lawyers, wolves, nor foxes. The two laſt may be true, the two firſt not; for, beſide the great abbey of Quarr or Quarraria, weſt of Ride, they had not fewer than ſix priories or other monaſtic houſes: but in reſpect to lawyers, it was (temporarily) moſt exact; for, during the captainſhip of ſir George Carry, *i. e.* from 1588 to 1603, 'no ſooner did an attorney appear in the iſle, but he was, by his command, with a pound of candles hanging at his beech lighted, with bells about his legs, hunted owte of the iſland.'

* Archæologia, vi. 179. This picture was engraven at the expence of the Society of Antiquaries.

† Engraven by the Society of Antiquaries, as is the famous interview juſt alluded to.

Sea Eagle?

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE SEA-EAGLE.

With an engraving of that Bird, coloured after Nature.

THE Oſſifragus or Sea Eagle, is a ſpecies of the genus Falco, which is very numerous. It is nearly as large as the Golden Eagle, meaſuring in length three feet and a half, but its expanded wings do not reach above ſeven feet. Its bill is large, much hooked, and of a bluiſh colour; its eye is yellow; a row of ſtrong briſtly feathers hangs down from its under bill, next to its throat, from whence it has been termed the bearded eagle: the top of the head and back part of the neck are dark brown, inclining to black; the feathers on the back are variegated by a lighter brown, with dark edges; the ſcapulars are pale brown, the edges nearly white; the breaſt and belly whitiſh, with irregular ſpots of brown; the tail feathers are dark brown; the outer edges of the exterior feathers whitiſh; the quill feathers and thighs are duſky; the legs and feet yellow; the claws, which are large, and form a complete ſemicircle, are of a ſhining black.

It is found in ſeveral parts of Great Britain, Mr. Willoughby tells us, that there was an aëry of them in Whinfield-park, Weſtmoreland; and the bird ſoaring in the air, with a cat in its talons (which Barlow drew from the very fact which he ſaw in Scotland) is of this kind. The cat's reſiſtance brought both animals to the ground, when Barlow took them up; and afterward cauſed the event to be engraved in the thirty-ſixth plate of his collection of prints. Turner ſays that in his days, this bird was too well know in England: for it made horrible deſtruction among the fiſh. All authors indeed agree, that it feeds principally on fiſh, which it takes as they are ſwimming near the ſurface, by darting itſelf down upon them; not by diving or ſwimming, as ſome authors pretend, who furniſh it for that purpoſe with one webbed foot to ſwim with, and another divided foot to take its prey with. Martin, ſpeaking of what he calls the great eagles of the weſtern iſles, ſays that they faſten their talons in the back of the fiſh, commonly of ſalmon, which are often above the water, or very near the ſurface. Thoſe of Greenland will even take a young ſeal out of the water. Turner, abovementioned, ſays, that the fiſhermen were fond of anointing their baits with the fat of this bird, imagining that it had a peculiar alluring quality; they were even ſuperſtitious enough to believe, that whenever the ſea-eagle hovered over a piece of water, the fiſh (as if charmed) would riſe to the ſurface with their bellies upward; and in that manner preſent themſelves to him.

The biſhop of Bergen, in his account of the birds of Norway, ſays, that though this bird does not diſlike a dead carcaſe on ſhore, it lives principally on fiſh, which it often takes from the otters, and frequently ſeizes fiſh on the ſurface of the water. When he flies out to ſea in order to ſtrike a fiſh with his talons, he ſometimes lays hold of ſuch as are too ſtrong for him, particularly the fiſh called in that country, the *queite*, whoſe high and prominent back makes him appear much leſs than he really is: when the eagle ſtrikes his talons into him, he cannot eaſily diſengage them, on account of their crookedneſs and length, in which caſe the fiſh drags him down with him; while the bird, making a miſerable cry, ſtrives to keep himſelf up, and works with his wings ſpread as long as poſſible, though in vain; for at laſt he muſt yield, and fall a prey to thoſe he meant to devour. Our author mentions another inſtance, in order to ſhow that this king of birds, as he is called, extends his attempts beyond his power. Near Bergen, an eagle ſtanding on the bank of a river, ſaw a large ſalmon as it were juſt under him; on which he inſtantly

ſtuck one of his talons into the root of an elm near it, and partly hanging over the river, ſtruck the other into the ſalmon, which being large and ſtrong, ſwam away, and ſplit the eagle to the neck. That the eagle loſt his life in this way is poſſible, but that he was ſplit to the neck, if we conſider the conſtruction of his body, ſeems a little apocryphal.—This ſpecies is frequent in North America, and was met with in Botany iſland, by captain Cook.

The eagle is the chief of the birds of prey, and it has been juſtly obſerved, that rapacious birds are much leſs numerous than ravenous quadrupeds; and it ſeems wiſely provided by nature, that their powers ſhould be equally confined and limited as their numbers *; for if, to the rapid flight and penetrating eye of the eagle, were joined the ſtrength and voracious appetite of the lion, the tiger, or the glutton, no artifice could evade the one, and no ſpeed could eſcape the other.

The characters of birds of the ravenous kind are particularly ſtrong, and eaſy to be diſtinguiſhed; the formidable talons, the large head, the ſtrong and crooked beak, indicate their ability for rapine and carnage; their diſpoſitions are fierce, and their nature untractable; unſociable and cruel, they avoid the haunts of civilization, and retire to the moſt melancholy and wild receſſes of nature, where they can enjoy, in gloomy ſolitude, the effects of their depredatory excurſions. The fierceneſs of their nature extends even to their young, which they drive from the neſt at a very early period; the difficulty of procuring a conſtant ſupply of food for them, ſometimes overcomes the feelings of parental affection; and they have been known to deſtroy them in the fury of diſappointed hunger.—Different from all other kinds, the female of birds of prey is larger and ſtronger than the male: the care of rearing her young, being ſolely entruſted to the female, nature has furniſhed her with more ample powers, to provide for her own wants and thoſe of her offſpring.

Buffon, ſpeaking of the eagle, compares it with the lion, and aſcribes to it the magnanimity, the ſtrength, and the forbearance of that noble quadruped. The eagle deſpiſes ſmall animals, and diſregards their inſults; he ſeldom devours the whole of his prey, but, like the lion, leaves the fragments to other animals; though famiſhed with hunger, he diſdains to feed on carrion. The eyes of the eagle have the glare of thoſe of the lion, and are nearly of the ſame colour; the claws are of the ſame ſhape, and the cry of both is powerful and terrible; deſtined for war and plunder, they are equally fierce, bold, and untractable. Such is the reſemblance which that ingenious and fanciful writer has pictured of theſe two noble animals; the characters of both are ſtriking and prominent, and hence the eagle is ſaid to extend his dominion over the birds, as the lion over the quadrupeds.

Eagles are remarkable for their longevity, and for their power of ſuſtaining a long abſtinence from food. Mr. Keyſler relates, that an eagle died at Vienna, after a confinement of 104 years. This extraordinary length of days probably gave occaſion to the ſaying of the pſalmiſt, 'Thy youth is renewed like the eagle's.' One of the golden eagle ſpecies, which was nine years in the poſſeſſion of Owen Holland, eſq. of Conway, lived thirty-two years with the gentleman, who made him a preſent of it; but what its age was when the latter received it from Ireland is unknown. The ſame bird alſo affords us proof of the truth of the other remark; having once, through the neglect of ſervants, endured hunger for twenty-one days, without any ſuſtenance whatſoever. Another author informs us that a common eagle, caught in a fox trap, paſſed five whole weeks without the

* Bewick's Birds.

leaſt food, and did not appear ſenſibly weakened till toward the laſt week, after which a period was put to its exiſtence.

While on the general ſubject of the eagle tribe, we ſhall not perhaps go far out of our way in noticing one ſpecies deſcribed by the Abyſſinian Bruce, which is not only the largeſt of its kind, but probably the largeſt bird that flies. He calls it the golden eagle, but by the natives it is called *father long-beard*, and from that circumſtance may be a variety of the ſpecies depicted in our print. This eagle, according to Mr. Bruce, is not an object of any chaſe, nor ſtood in need of any ſtratagem to bring it within reach. Upon the higheſt top of the mountain Lamalmon, while Mr. Bruce's ſervants were refreſhing themſelves from that toilſome rugged aſcent, and enjoying the pleaſure of a moſt delightful climate, eating their dinner in the air, with ſeveral large diſhes of boiled goats fleſh before them, this eagle ſuddenly made its appearance; he did not ſtoop rapidly from a height, but came flying ſlowly along the ground, and ſat down cloſe to the meat, within the ring the men had made round it. A great ſhout, or rather cry of diſtreſs, which they raiſed, made the bird ſtand for a minute as if to recollect himſelf, while the ſervants ran for their lances and ſhields. His intention was fully fixed upon the fleſh. He put his foot into the pan, where was a large piece in water prepared for boiling; but finding the ſmart which he had not expected, he withdrew it, and forſook the piece which he held. There were two large pieces, a leg and a ſhoulder, lying upon a wooden platter; into theſe he truſſed both his claws and carried them off; ſkimming ſlowly along the ground as he had come, till he diſappeared behind a cliff. But being obſerved at his departure to look wiſtfully at the large piece, which remained in the warm water, it was concluded that he would ſoon return; in expectation of which, Mr. Bruce loaded a rifle-gun with ball, and ſat down cloſe to the platter by the meat. It was not many minutes before he came, and a prodigious ſhout was raiſed by the attendants, 'He is coming! He is coming!' enough to have diſcouraged a leſs courageous animal. Whether it was not quite ſo hungry as at the firſt viſit, or ſuſpected ſomething from Mr. Bruce's appearance, it made a ſmall turn, and ſat down about ten yards from him, the pan with the meat being between them. In this ſituation, Mr. Bruce fired, and ſhot him with the ball through the middle of his body about two inches below the wing, ſo that he lay down upon the graſs without a ſingle flutter. Upon laying hold of his monſtrous carcaſe, our author was not a little ſurpriſed at ſeeing his hands covered and tinged with yellow powder or duſt. Upon turning him upon his belly, and examining the feathers of his back, they produced a brown duſt, the colour of the feathers there. This duſt was not in ſmall quantities; for upon ſtriking his breaſt, the yellow powder flew in fully greater quantity than from a hair-dreſſer's powder-puff. The feathers of the belly and breaſt, which were of a gold colour, did not appear to have any thing extraordinary in their formation, but the large feathers in the ſhoulder and wings ſeemed apparently to be fine tubes, which upon preſſure ſcattered this duſt upon the finer part of the feather, but this was brown, the colour of the feathers of the back. Upon the ſide of the wing, the ribs, or hard part of the feather, ſeemed to be bare, as if worn, or, in our author's opinion, were rather renewing themſelves, having before failed in their function. What is the reaſon of this extraordinary proviſion of nature, our author does not pretend to determine. But as it is an unuſual one, it is probably meant, he thinks, for a defence againſt the climate in favour of thoſe birds, which live in thoſe almoſt inacceſſible heights of a country covered even in its lower parts, to ſeveral

months of exceſſive rain. According to Mr. Bruce's deſcription, this bird, from wing to wing, was eight feet four inches; from the tip of his tail to the point of his beak when dead, four feet ſeven inches. He was remarkably ſhort in the legs, being only four inches from the joining of the foot to where the leg joins the thigh, and from the joint of the thigh to the joining of his body, ſix inches. The thickneſs of his thigh was little leſs than four inches; it was extremely muſcular, and covered with fleſh. His middle claw was about two inches and a half long, not very ſharp at the point, but extremely ſtrong. From the root of the bill to the point was three inches and a quarter, and one inch and three quarters in breadth at the root. A forked bruſh of ſtrong hair, divided at the point into two, proceeded from the cavity of his lower jaw at the beginning of his throat. His eye was remarkably ſmall in proportion to his bulk, the aperture being ſcarcely half an inch. The crown of his head was bare or bald, as was alſo the front where the bill and ſcull joined.

THE BANDEAU OF LOVE, OR THE BLINDNESS OF DULILOT.

[By Madame ROLAND.—From her Works.]

LOVE has been repreſented with a *Bandeau*; of all her attributes, this is, perhaps, the moſt formidable, and the leaſt dreaded: it ſeems, at firſt ſight, that it has in fact ſome charms for hearts really captivated. A man loves to ſhut his eyes on the faults of a beloved miſtreſs, and a woman would wiſh never to have diſcovered the infidelity of an amiable lover: it is pleaſant to be ignorant of both. But, nevertheleſs, ought not the exceſſes into which error hurries us, make us apprehend a blindneſs that may become fatal? I ſhall anſwer this queſtion only by the recital of a real adventure, the model of which would not be found in all the Amadiſes of romances.

In one of the moſt conſiderable towns in France, Dulilot occupied a reſpectable rank among the rich traders that are there to be found in great numbers. A character for integrity, which conſtitutes the principal quality and the greateſt eulogium of a man in buſineſs, diſtinguiſhed him to advantage; a juſt diſcernment, an engaging temper, had gained him the eſteem and good-will of all thoſe who knew him; theſe procured him a bleſſing perhaps ſtill more uncommon, I mean a ſincere, enlightened, generous and feeling friend, whoſe ſuperior mind did not wait for years, to develop itſelf with nobleneſs, and produce thoſe actions which in general are only the fruits of a virtue ſtrengthened by experience.

Dulilot, older than his friend, who was but three and twenty, was at that period of life, when reaſon and ſtrength naturally meet together. He was a partner, as are moſt of the merchants of Lyons, who, by this mean, facilitate to themſelves the greateſt undertakings; but his heart was not yet engaged: he had not apparently met with an object that could fix his choice, and a rational prudence had contributed to retard the determination it. He wiſhed, with his hand, to offer a brilliant ſituation, which ſeveral years of an eſtabliſhed buſineſs can alone procure: he had, in this reſpect, attained the point that he might wiſh, when his affairs obliged him to make a journey to Paris. Although the motives which prompted him to this journey were not very preſſing, he gladly availed himſelf of them to viſit the capital; he ſet off in ſpirits, and in this manner performed half of the route. In one of the inns where carriages ſtop, in the evening, to paſs and reſt the night, Dulilot was ſtruck, on his arrival, by a woman whom he perceived there.

A faſcinating countenance, an affecting look, that air which intereſts, and more than all this, that certain ſomething which captivates, overſet him in a moment. He was ſurprized, troubled, and enchanted, before he had reflected on the cauſe of an impreſſion ſo warm and ſo ſudden; his eyes greedily ſurveyed the features of the perſon, the ſight of whom agitated him: he could not reſiſt the deſire of knowing who ſhe was. He enquired of a clergyman who frequently converſed with her, and appeared to be acquainted with her; from him he learned that this woman, reſpectable from her birth and her manners, was flying from the injuſtice of her parents and the rigours of fate, by which ſhe was alike purſued. This opening, by ſtill exciting his curioſity, alſo moved his liberality: he offered the perſon who informed him, two *louis d'ors*, which he begged him to prevail on the amiable and unfortunate lady to accept, at the ſame time charging him to conceal from her the benefactor. The clergyman undertook a commiſſion ſo ſuitable to his character, and the zeal with which he accompanied the execution of it, made it ſucceed to Dulilot's deſire.

In the mean time it was growing late; Dulilot, who ſought only the means of making acquaintance with the beautiful ſtranger, contrived to engage her to ſupper. The lady diſplayed, during the repaſt, ſo much grace and wit, that ſhe completely inſpired Dulilot with the moſt violent paſſion. He learnt that *Narvalle* (this was the name the lady aſſumed) was going to Lyons; how was it poſſible for him to leave her, by continuing his route toward Paris? He changed his plan at the very inſtant; and reſolving to charge his correſpondents to ſupply his place at Paris, he returned to his own country, where he propoſed to render ſervice to Nervalle, who, after ſome difficulties, at length ſuffered Dulilot to accompany her. Before they had arrived, the obliging eccleſiaſtic, who ſerved her as a guardian and a guide, diſappeared without his being able to learn what became of him; Dulilot was overjoyed at having it in his power to be his ſubſtitute; he was tranſported to find that he was become neceſſary; and he awailed himſelf of the opportunities of the journey, to inform himſelf more fully of Nervalle's ſituation, of the cauſes of a grief which ſhe appeared to wiſh to conceal, and of the reaſons which made her fly from her family, in order to take refuge in a ſtrange country. One day, when he was preſſing her more warmly, he backed his ſolicitations with ſo many aſſurances of diſcretion, and promiſes of attachment, that Nervalle, overcome, yielded to his deſires. 'The intereſt that you take in my fate,' ſaid ſhe to him, 'is too generous not to ſurmount my repugnance to deſcribe it to you, ſuch as it is. I am the daughter of a gentleman, whoſe name is not perhaps unknown to you; I loſt my mother very early in life, and with her that neceſſary guide of our tender years, that ſource of conſolation and ſalutary advice, which is ſo ſeldom to be ſupplied by any other perſon. My father died in the ſervice; I was entruſted to the care of a very old uncle, who was rather fond of me; I ſhould have found the quiet and retired kind of life, that he made me paſs at his houſe, agreeable enough, had not the inſupportable temper of his wife tormented me inceſſantly. Among the ſmall number of perſons that he ſaw, there was the ſon of one of his friends, who formed upon me deſigns which I did not diſapprove; he was young, amiable, and ſince my uncle admitted him into his houſe, it is needleſs to ſay that he conſidered him as a gentleman. He declared his intentions reſpecting me; but as fortune did not favour him, his propoſal was not accepted. My uncle deſtined me for a perſon of his choice, that is to ſay, old and rich, but beſides, ſo infirm and avaricious, that I could not find it in my heart to receive him for a huſband. My rejected lover had con-

trived to tranſmit me the marks of his deſpair, and the aſſurances of his eternal fidelity; I loved him; my uncle himſelf knew no other defect in him than his not having a ſufficient fortune, and yet he wiſhed to force me to follow his will in taking the odious miſer whom I could not endure. The extremity to which he reduced me, made me yield to my inclination; I married my lover, after having eloped from my uncle's houſe. Our union being accompliſhed, my new huſband compelled my uncle to give up to me the property of my father; ſcarcely did he poſſeſs it, when I ſaw him diſſipate it by his prodigality: to the extreme tenderneſs which he had at firſt ſhewn me, ſucceeded ſome ſhameful behaviour; he totally deſerted me; and having obtained a ſituation as an officer in the regiment of Bourbonnois, he ſet off for the iſland of Corſica, where he is at preſent. My family, exaſperated, cauſed me to be ſought after, in order to ſecure my perſon; I am flying from their anger; victim as I am, of a betrayed love, I am looking for an aſylum where I can paſs my days quietly, without feeling the reſentment of my cruel relations. My friends have not quite forſaken me on this occaſion; I can verify my ſtory by letters which relate to it. Here are ſome from M. de ——, lieutenant-general, and from the marſhal de ——.'

Dulilot ſaw nothing in theſe letters but proofs of the ſtory, which he had liſtened to with ſo much attention, and during which he had been agitated by a thouſand different emotions. The intereſt that he felt for Nervalle, did but increaſe; it appeared to him delightful to be able to relieve unfortunate beauty in diſtreſs, and injured virtue; his converſation expreſſed theſe ſentiments to Nervalle, who, touched by his generous offers, betrayed a confidence that charmed Dulilot.

They arrived at Lyons, where the friendly attention of Dulilot obliged the amiable and unfortunate lady, to take a houſe more ſuitable to his perſon than to her ſituation, which he endeavoured to alleviate by the moſt generous behaviour. Every day he eſtabliſhed, or rather ſtrengthened himſelf in the confidence of Nervalle; he thought he had gained her good will, ſo far as to be able to confeſs to her, how unhappy he was that ſhe had already engaged her hand to a man who was ſo unworthy of it; and how tranſported he ſhould be, if, by a method which he ſlightly glanced at, ſhe cou'd withdraw it in his favour. Nervalle's delicacy appeared to be ſtartled, at a propoſition to which ſhe had herſelf brought Duliot: it was only after ſome time, attention, and perſeverance, that ſhe made known her reſolution. As legitimate means were the only ones that ſhe would employ, ſhe told Dulilot, who was preſſing her continually, that ſhe was determined to get her marriage diſſolved; and for this purpoſe, it was neceſſary that ſhe ſhould go to Corſica, to urge its annulment.

Duliot, charmed at the project, provided every thing that was requiſite for this voyage, and penetrated with grief at the abſence of his miſtreſs, it was only in conſequence of her poſitive prohibition that he did not accompany her to the place of embarkation; he therefore tried to conſole himſelf, by indulging the flattering hopes which this ſtep afforded him.

Debar, the intimate friend of Dulilot, of whom I have ſpoken at the beginning, was in his confidence; but he combated, with all his might, an inclination, the end of which did not appear to him advantageous to his friend; he ventured to entertain a rather unfavourable of opinion of Nervalle, and what he ſtrove to perſuade Dulilot to on this head, had a little cooled the latter. Debar's attachment, however, was not at all changed; he pitied his friend, and ſtill cultivated his confidence in order to reſerve to himſelf the means of being uſeful to him: ſo noble a manner of acting touched Dulilot, who came

to himſelf, and liſtened to his advice, although he did not follow it when it counteracted his inclination.

Nervalle returned from Corſica; ſhe informed the impatient Dulilot, that their wiſhes could not be accompliſhed, and that ſhe found inſurmountable obſtacles to the diſſolution of her marriage. Dulilot was diſconſolate; he found no alleviation to his grief, but in the part which Nervalle condeſcended to take in it; and this triſling comfort was unavailing.

During all this interval, Nervalle's family had not given up their reſearches; ſhe learnt by letters which ſhe always communicated to Dulilot, that her uncle had ſome ſuſpicions of her being at Lyons, and that ſhe would not be there long in ſafety. 'You ſee, my dear Dulilot,' ſaid ſhe to him in a tender tone, 'with what animoſity they purſue me; it ſeems that frightful deſtiny envies me the comforts, with which your generous eſteem ſoothed my bitter troubles. Do not be ſurpriſed if ſome day, an unforeſeen warning ſhould force me to a ſudden abſence. In caſe I ſhould come to know that my relations are too well informed, and are taking meaſures accordingly, I would go to Toulouſe, to conceal myſelf in a convent, of which this is the addreſs; however, you muſt not write to me there, before you have heard from me, and I might poſſibly not ſend a letter to you for a month, on account of the neceſſary circumſpection and precaution, which I ſhall explain to you, and which you may already anticipate.'

The tears with which ſhe accompanied this ſpeech, were followed by tender proteſtations mutually expreſſed, to love each other for ever in ſpite of their misfortunes.

Nervalle's fears were not immediately juſtified; the tranquillity in which ſhe found herſelf in this reſpect, determined her to propoſe to Dulilot, to go for her to Aix: it was on a buſineſs of ſome importance. Out of the wreck of her fortune, Nervalle had preſerved a conſiderable ſum in bills of exchange, which till then had remained in the hands of a friend and truſtee, who had not had it in his power to tranſmit them to her before: theſe bills were drawn on the marchioneſs de Vorſon, at Aix. Nervalle knew no one, in this town, to whom ſhe could entruſt the commiſſion of receiving the amount of them; Dulilot undertook the buſineſs, and ſet off to execute it. Arrived at Aix, he went, according to the addreſs mentioned, to the marchioneſs de Vorſon's; ſhe was not known; ſurpriſed, he made enquiry, hunted every where, and after the moſt deligent ſearch, which prolonged his ſtay more than he would have wiſhed, he ſaw himſelf forced to return without having diſcovered any trace of this marchioneſs. Vexed at a diſappointment ſo unexpected, accuſing only the diſhoneſty of madame de Vorſon, who he ſuppoſed had quitted the town to avoid her engagements; and thinking only of the concern of his miſtreſs on learning this unforeſeen loſs, he returned to Lyons, full of ſorrow and inquietude. His own ſituation contributed to afflicting reflections; his affairs were not in a good ſtate; his trade neglected, the enormous expences that he had been at for Nervalle, reduced him to a melancholy ſituation; he hoped at leaſt to depoſit and forget part of his cares, at the feet of that adorable woman. He flew to her houſe on his arrival, to that houſe which he himſelf had furniſhed, where he ſaw comfort and taſte, ſeconded by his liberality, embelliſh the abode of his dear Nervalle; but how great was his grief? Nervalle, during his abſence, had quitted her houſe and the city: no news that might ſeem to tranquillize him reſpecting what could become of her. What ſurpriſed him more, was, that not only the jewels, but even the moſt triſling articles which he had given her, had diſappeared with her. However, Nervalle ſeemed to ſhow her ſincerity, by alſo taking with her a niece of Du-

lilot's; this was a child, eight or ten years old. But this circumſtance was unneceſſary to perſuade Dulilot of the honour, the candour, and the ſincerity of his miſtreſs; he did not for a moment aſcribe to her any views contrary to thoſe, which he had always diſcovered in her. His friend Debar, who was not blinded by love, did not think like him; he employed the beſt reaſons to prove to Dulilot, that he was deceived; but it was always without ſucceſs; the latter oppoſed, to the reaſons of his friend, the motives of the reſearches of the family of Nervalle, who, no doubt, had found herſelf forced on that account to make an expeditious retreat.

The adventure made a noiſe in Lyons, where for a long time before Dulilot's ſingular attachment had been remarked, and had excited the cenſure of all thoſe who knew him. The derangement of fortune that had followed it, was at length the cauſe of his partners excluding him from the firm.———

[To be concluded in our next.]

IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Thurſday, April 16.

THEIR lordſhips met at four, and, after a ſhort pauſe, the earl of St. Vincent roſe for the purpoſe, he ſaid, of moving the thanks of the houſe to thoſe noble, gallant, and diſtinguiſhed commanders, who had ſo ſignally fought, and who had ſo decidedly obtained the victory over the Daniſh fleet before Copenhagen. He would move, too, with no leſs warmth, the thanks of the houſe to the officers, marines, and ſailors, who had with ſo much courage ſuſtained the engagement, and atchieved the complete defeat of the enemy's fleet. Much as might be ſaid for the glory and honour of the Britiſh arms, he had to add that, in his opinion, no one victory through the whole courſe of our naval ſucceſs was in itſelf of greater importance, nor likely to be attended with more important and extenſive benefits to the Britiſh empire. He then moved the thanks of the houſe to admiral ſir Hyde Parker, for the victory obtained over the Daniſh fleet, on the 2d of April laſt, which was agreed to *nem. diſſ.* The noble earl then moved, that the thanks of the houſe ſhould be given to vice-admiral lord Nelſon; to rear-admiral Graves; to the hon. colonel Stewart, or the 40th regiment of foot; together with the officers, marines, and ſailors, ſerving on board the Britiſh fleet.

The duke of Clarence ſaid, it might appear preſumptuous in him to riſe and add approbation to what was already mentioned; yet he would juſt ſay, that great praiſe was owing to the late firſt lord of the admiralty, for the peculiar choice he had made of commanders for the expedition, and great praiſe alſo to the preſent noble earl, who had diſpatched it with a celerity and promptitude that led almoſt to ſure and inſtant ſucceſs. He complimented lord Nelſon highly on his courage and intrepidity, which fortune ſeemed to back in every enterprize in which he was engaged; and acknowledged his own perſonal obligation, as a prince of the blood, to the gallant commanders, and to the whole fleet, for the accompliſhment of a victory, which, probably, in its effect, would reſtore the poſſeſſions on the continent to his family, together with the peace and ſecurity of the Britiſh empire and of Europe.

Lord Hood would not give, he ſaid, a ſilent vote: he dwelt on the merits of the choice which had been made of the commanders, who, of all others, ſeemed moſt fit for the peculiarly critical ſituation of hazard and danger they had to encounter in the northern ſeas.

The motion was agreed to, and the thanks were ordered to be communicated to the reſpective commanders.—Adjourned.

Friday, April 17.

Their lordſhips proceeded at a late hour of the evening to the order of the day, for the ſecond reading of the bill for empowering his majeſty to apprehend and detain in cuſtody ſuch perſons as may be ſuſpected of conſpiring againſt his perſon or government; and the report of the ſecret committee being previouſly read,

The earl of Moira roſe, not for the purpoſe, he ſaid, of oppoſing the bill, which ſhould receive his aſſent, if it could be proved that it was neceſſary; but to object to the want of ſufficient evidence to eſtabliſh the report, and therefore inſufficient

to bear their lordſhips out in the paſſing of a bill which went to ſuſpend one of the moſt important privileges of Engliſhmen. He reſpected the opinion of the noble lords who compoſed the committee as much as any ſet of men he knew; yet he would remind their lordſhips that they were not complimented with their ſeats in that houſe for the paſſing of acts on the mere aſſertions and faith of any committee, but as jealous and watchful guardians of the rights of their countrymen. Such an act might be neceſſary, but that neceſſity ought to be made out, and the bill came to them in ſo queſtionable and unuſual a form, that he would withhold his aſſent until he heard ſome reaſons that would carry conviction to his mind far beyond what fears, and ſurpriſes, and mere reports had done.

Lord Borrington expected that a new line of argument would be taken up by noble lords who oppoſed the bill, but he found no objection made by the noble lord, except the want of ſufficient evidence of the exiſtence of ſedition and treaſon. He conſidered the report of the reſpective committees, and the authority of one branch of the legiſlature, who conſidered and paſſed the bill, from its urgency, in one day, as ſtrong evidence of its neceſſity, and ſuch as called upon their lordſhips aſſent.

Lord Hobart admitted the meaſure to be a ſtrong one, and ſuch as neceſſity alone could juſtify: that papers were not laid before the houſe as uſual was matter of formality, as they were transferred to the committee of the commons, and could not, without an addreſs to his majeſty, be got out of their hands before. Diſpatch and promptitude were now neceſſary, and he appriſed the houſe that the bill would be propoſed to paſs through all its ſtages to-night.

Lord Holland oppoſed the bill altogether, as an infraction, wanton and cruel, on the rights of Engliſhmen, without a ſhadow of proof that there was any diſaffection in the country; Ireland was a victim of ſuch acts of the legiſlature.

Lord Grenville ſupported the bill, on the grounds of that conſtitutional protection which the legiſlature owed to the country.

The queſtion was then put and carried without a diviſion. The bill then paſſed. Adjourned.

Monday, May 18.

Lord Hobart roſe and ſaid, that he would not take up much of the time of the houſe in reciting what was freſh in the mind of every man, and deeply engraven in the hearts of their lordſhips. He would not waſte it by ſuperfluous or tedious panegyric, when the very mention of the ſubject would awaken every feeling of gratitude and applauſe, ſo juſtly due to the bravery, courage, perſeverance, and magnanimity of thoſe who fought and thoſe who fell in fighting for their country. Under ſuch a taſk he would inevitably fail, as it would be equally impoſſible for him to do juſtice to an action which, when it is conſidered, under all its difficulties and diſadvantages, was ſuch as, in his opinion, was not to be ſurpaſſed in any to be found in the annals of the country. He would barely content himſelf in mentioning thoſe great and honourable commanders, both by ſea and land, whoſe bravery, perſeverance, and intrepidity have contributed ſo largely to the honour and glory of the nation, and move the thanks of their grateful countrymen accordingly. But to commemorate that loſs, which all in common deplore, to ſympathiſe in generous ſorrow with his grateful country, no language can better paint, no eloquence can better expreſs the character of ſir Ralph Abercromby than that in which his brave and generous ſucceſſor has brought him to our view—'Were it permitted for a ſoldier to regret any one who has fallen in the ſervice of his country, I might be excuſed for lamenting him more than any other perſon; but it is ſome conſolation to thoſe who tenderly loved him, that as his life was honourable, ſo was his death glorious. His memory will be recorded in the annals of his country, will be ſacred to every Britiſh ſoldier, and embalmed in the recollection of a grateful poſterity.' His lordſhip then moved the thanks of the houſe to general Hutchinſon, and the officers under him in Egypt, for their brave and intrepid conduct in the battle of the 21ſt of March laſt, &c. on the coaſt of Egypt.

Earl Moira warmly concurred in this vote of thanks, and called to the recollection of the houſe, what he had often ſaid, that wherever our troops had an opportunity of ſignaliſing their conduct and courage in the field it was marked with ſucceſs; and it could now be no longer ſaid, that whatever glory had been acquired by our arms at ſea, the Britiſh arms could not achieve conqueſts as great and glorious by land. The preſent important victory was a proof of their proweſs, and of that ſucceſs which he now

truſted would crown their future attempts, and eſtabliſh their future glory. But much as he was diſpoſed to aſcribe to ſo glorious an event, he had to lament the fall of ſo many brave men in the conqueſt of a country which, through the abſurdity and obſtinacy of the late adminiſtration, we were now called upon to purchaſe with ſo much blood. His lordſhip then agreed in the vote of thanks.

The other motions were then made, the ſame as in the commons, and agreed to *nem. diſſ.*

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Thurſday, Apil 16.

THE chancellor of the exchequer roſe, in purſuance of the notice he had given, to move the thanks of the houſe to admiral ſir Hyde Parker, and admirals lord Nelſon and Graves; to colonel Stuart, of the 49th regiment, and to the captains of the ſeveral ſhips, officers of marines, ſailors, &c. in the North Sea fleet, for the gallant conduct, intrepidity, and ſkill they had diſplayed in attacking the Daniſh line of defence, in the roads of Copenhagen. He beſtowed the higheſt eulogiums upon thoſe admirals who had the conducting of this momentous enterpriſe, and gave every commendation to thoſe who acted under their command. He ſtated, that after the attack had been crowned with the moſt complete ſucceſs, admiral lord Nelſon wrote a letter to the prince royal of Denmark, ſtating, that he ſhould ſtill be compelled to deſtroy the floating batteries. The prince royal wiſhed to know the reaſon why ſuch a letter had been ſent to him. Lord Nelſon, in anſwer, ſaid, that he was anxious to ſpare the further effuſion of blood, he aſked, whether or not the batteries were diſpoſed to ſurrender. His lordſhip then went on ſhore, where he was received with the moſt lively demonſtrations of joy by the people, and he had a conference with the prince royal, the nature of which it would be improper for him to ſtate at preſent. He ſaid, that the victory which had been gained ſhould be uſed with that ſpirit of magnanimity and forbearance which always became a nation who triumphed over its foes. He truſted that, under God, it would be the means of bringing about a peace, honourable in the higheſt degree to this country, and permanent all over Europe. The chancellor of the exchequer then made the motions ſimilar to thoſe we have given in the lords.

Lord Hawkeſbury ſeconded the motions; and a few very ſhort ſpeeches were delivered by meſſrs. Pitt, Grey, and Sheridan, all tending to the praiſe of our fleet, for their decided conduct upon ſuch a great and important expedition. The motions were then carried *nem. con.*

The chancellor of the exchequer then moved that an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, that he would be graciouſly pleaſed to order that monuments be erected in St. Paul's cathedral, to the memory of captains Moſſe and Riou, who glorioufly fell on the 2d of April 1801, in attacking the Daniſh line of defence in the roads of Copenhagen. The motion was carried *nem. con.*

Thurſday, May 14.

Lord Hawkeſbury brought down a meſſage from his majeſty, which was read by the ſpeaker, and is in ſubſtance as follows:

'G. R. His majeſty taking into his moſt ſerious conſideration the imminent danger with which the kingdom of Portugal, the ancient and natural ally of Great Britain, is threatened by the powers at war, and alſo the commercial regulations of the two kingdoms, and deſirous of rendering her majeſty ſuch relief as may be neceſſary for the defence of her kingdom, recommends to his grateful commons to enable him to ſubſidize her majeſty for the protection of her dominions againſt the common enemy.'

The chancellor of the exchequer moved that the meſſage ſhould be referred to a committee of ſupply, and taken into conſideration on Monday, when the ſum he would propoſe would be 300,000l, to be paid by inſtalments.—Ordered.—He then moved for a committee to enquire into the laws reſpecting the duties upon ſalt, and to report the ſame. It was his intention to move, that ſuch a report, when made, ſhould be printed and circulated through the country, preparatory to a meaſure he would bring forward next ſeſſion, namely, the repealing of the duties on this article, and commuting them for others on tea, if found practicable, or ſome ſuch other commodity. This motion of the chancellor of the exchequer met the full approbation of the houſe, and the committee was accordingly appointed. Adjourned.

Monday, May 18.

The ſpeaker informed the houſe that he had received a letter from ſir Hyde Parker, in anſwer to the communication he had tranſmitted of the thanks of the houſe to that officer, and the officers and ſailors under his command.

MONUMENT to the MEMORY of GENERAL ABERCROMBY.

The chancellor of the exchequer—Sir, I riſe in conſequence of the notice I gave the houſe on Friday laſt, to propoſe to render a tribute of national gratitude to the memory of general ſir Ralph Abercromby. On referring to the journals of the houſe, I find, that on an occaſion ſimilar in many reſpects to the preſent one —in occaſion which equally operated upon the joy and regret of the houſe—I mean, ſir, when the account of the death of general Wolfe, and the ſucceſs of the Britiſh army, were made known to the country, the firſt proceeding of the houſe of commons was to pay a tribute of regret and juſtice to the memory of the general the country had loſt, before it expreſſed its gratitude to the army. It is my wiſh to imitate what was done upon an occaſion in which the Britiſh army gained a victory, and the country had the misfortune to loſe a brave general. On the merits of that great and diſtinguiſhed man, who has been loſt to his country in his command in Egypt, it is unneceſſary for me to expatiate. His merits are known to every one who hears me; they are deſcribed by his ſucceſſor in a manner that does honour to the feelings of his heart, and ſhew that, if Britiſh ſentiments can be relied upon in enabling him who is actuated by them to render eminent ſervices to his country, general Hutchinſon will prove a valuable ſucceſſor to the great man who preceded him. Of ſir Ralph Abercromby I wiſh to abſtain from ſaying more than that he cloſed a long life of honour with a death of glory. The breath of calumny never reached him. He was juſtly honoured by the officers aſſociated with him, and the ſoldiers under his command. Within a few minutes before I came to the houſe, I had the ſatisfaction of ſeeing a letter, in which juſtice is done in the warmeſt terms to the memory of that officer. 'He had acquired,' ſaid the writer, 'in the higheſt degree, the confidence of the ſoldiers, and had gained by his conduct and manners that aſcendancy over the officers and army in general, which inſured a prompt obedience to his commands. All ſeemed to have reſigned their judgments to his, and the only conteſt was, who ſhould obtain the greateſt ſhare of his approbation.' I am inclined to rate ſir Ralph Abercromby among the firſt military characters that ever adorned the country. His end bore a ſtriking reſemblance to that of general Wolfe. I will only add, that his majeſty, with that gracious diſpoſition, which he has ever manifeſted to do honour to thoſe who have ſerved him faithfully, and by their exertions have benefited the country, has directed that the ſtandard which has fallen into our power ſhould adorn the monument to be erected to ſir Ralph Abercromby, to preſerve the memory of his ſervices. It is a ſtriking circumſtance, that this ſtandard will remain till the lateſt poſterity, at leaſt as long as a fragment of it can be preſerved, as a teſtimony of the bravery of a man who never drew his ſword to ſubvert and deſtroy, but to ſave as well as to conquer. I truſt that ſuch may ever be the principles which will actuate the juſtice of the country, and that it will ever be bleſſed with ſuch men as ſir Ralph Abercromby to carry them into effect. On the achievements of the army lately commanded by general Abercromby, and now by general Hutchinſon, it is not my intention to expatiate. To the ſtriking recital given by that valuable officer, general Hutchinſon, I refer the houſe for the details of the laſt glorious achievement of the army. The preceding one has been deſcribed in terms equally to the honour of the Britiſh character by the officer whoſe loſs we lament; but I am in poſſeſſion of a letter from a perſon who was an eye-witneſs of both thoſe achievements; with the leave of the houſe, I will ſtate the ſubſtance of it. He ſays, 'I ſaw the actions of the 13th and 21ſt of March, and I am proud to ſay, that the landing of the troops on the 13th, when the Engliſh attacked, and the battle of the 21ſt, when the French attacked, will eſtabliſh a character for undaunted firmneſs, and unſhaken reſolution, which will never be obliterated, and will make every Engliſhman proud of his country as long as it ſhall endure. The conquerors of Italy fled before our army, and their ſtandard remained the prize of the victors: Engliſhmen will weep when they ſhall behold it; it is a prize that has coſt us dear. To obtain it we have loſt our brave general.' Without indulging in any unreaſonable exultation over the enemy, which at all times is unmanly, we may ſurely, ſir, feel an honeſt and becoming Engliſh pride, at an event ſo glorious to the country. There is not a man who muſt not feel that every exertion of the army adds to our domeſtic ſtrength and ſecurity. Let us, however, always call to mind; let us never ceaſe to repeat, that the great object of military exertion is the attainment of an honourable and permanent peace; and let it be underſtood to be

the ſolid purpoſe of government and of parliament, as it ought to be of the people, not to let any victory, however gratifying, induce us to demand more of the enemy than is neceſſary for our own ſafety and ſecurity; and, on the other hand, not to ſuffer that any degree of diſaſter ſhould induce us to accept of leſs. If ſuch was ever to be the caſe, we ſhould miſerably under-rate the faculties, energies, and powers of the country; we ſhould render unprofitable thoſe victories which are its glory; we ſhould vilify and degrade the reſources of the country, the beſt of which are to be found in the unconquered and unconquerable mind the people poſſeſs in ſo eminent a degree, and which, when wiſely tempered, is the ſource of all that is good and great—the guardian of private honour, the pledge of public worth, and the beſt preſervative of the glory, proſperity, and happineſs of the country. I wiſh to have it underſtood, that the ſentiments of admiration I expreſs are applied to the whole of the army and navy. I ſhall forbear to ſpecify all who merit particular mention. The motion I ſhall have the honour to ſubmit will refer ſpecifically only to thoſe officers who, from their rank and ſervices in the army and navy, have peculiarly the right to be ſo diſtinguiſhed; but I deſire it to be underſtood that I conſider all concerned, without exception, as equally intitled to the applauſe, admiration, and gratitude of the country. I move, ſir, "that an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, moſt humbly deſiring that his majeſty will be graciouſly pleaſed to give directions that a monument be erected in the cathedral of St. Paul, in memory of the ever-lamented commander in chief of his majeſty's land forces, lieutenant-general ſir R. Abercromby, knight of the moſt noble order of the Bath, who, having ſurmounted, by his valour and conſummate ability, the obſtacles oppoſed by a powerful enemy to his landing on the coaſt of Egypt, and who, after having ſucceſsfully eſtabliſhed thoſe diſpoſitions neceſſary for the further operations of the army under his command, reſiſted, with ſignal advantage, a deſperate attack of the choſen and veteran troops of the enemy, on the 21ſt of March laſt, when he received early in the action a mortal wound, notwithſtanding which he remained on the field, animating by his command, and encouraging by his example, the brave troops under him, till their valour had achieved the victory of that memorable day—and to aſſure his majeſty that this houſe will make good the expence of erecting the ſaid monument."

Sir James Pulteney ſeconded the motion, and paſſed a high eulogy on general Abercromby and the army.

The motion was carried *nem. con.*

The chancellor of the exchequer then moved the thanks of the houſe to general Hutchinſon, and the ſeveral other general officers under their command, for their good conduct on landing, and all their ſubſequent operations, but particularly for their gallant behaviour on the 21ſt of March, when attacked by the French army, whom they defeated.

He then moved that the houſe do acknowledge, and highly approve, the conduct of the ſeveral non-commiſſioned officers and privates, and that the ſame be ſignified to them by their reſpective officers—and that the ſpeaker do communicate theſe reſolutions to general Hutchinſon.

He then moved the thanks of the houſe to admiral lord Keith, rear-admiral ſir Richard Bickerton, the ſeveral captains and officers of the fleet, for their cordial co-operation in landing the troops.

He then moved, that the houſe do acknowledge and highly approve the conduct of the ſeamen and marines in landing the troops, and that Mr. ſpeaker do communicate the ſame to lord Keith.

Tueſday, May 19.

The chancellor of the exchequer moved the third reading of the bill for removing doubts with regard to the eligibility of the clergy to a ſeat in the commons houſe of parliament.

Mr. Joliffe briefly ſtated his objections to the bill, which he had more fully inſiſted upon on a former occaſion.

Sir Francis Burdett, after a few preliminary remarks on the inconſiſtency in which the bill was calculated to place the houſe, proceeded to the more direct conſideration of its principle. In this view he objected to the bill on all the propoſed grounds, and he was convinced that if each of theſe grounds were ſeparately conſidered he ſhould have a majority of the houſe to concur with him in their rejection, though by ſome ſtrange inconſiſtency they might agree to the bill on a general contemplation of the whole. In conſidering theſe grounds, the firſt appeared to be, that according to the doctrine laid down by a very learned gentleman (ſir William Scott) a perſon once having been in orders could never lay down his ſacred character. Unleſs this poſition ſtood, that orders were to be viewed in the light of a Sacra-

ment, and that they imprinted a ſort of indelible character on the ſoul of a man, the grand principle of the bill was annihilated. To prove that orders were not conſidered in the light of a ſacrament by the church, the hon. baronet made a quotation from the articles of the church, and to ſhew that the character was not indelible, he read another extract from the ſame authority, where the ſuſpenſion and depoſition of miniſters is, in certain caſes, declared to be fully conſonant to the practice of the church. Having done this, he urged that it would be a ſtrange argument to hold that depoſition in conſequence of criminality might open the door of the houſe to an individual, while another free from all ſuch criminality was to be for ever excluded. But farther, did not this as well as every other argument apply with much greater force to the biſhops than the inferior clergy? If it is ſaid that politics and the different concerns of the world were unſuitable to the clerical character, did not this bear more forcibly on the biſhops than the inferior labourers in the ſame great ſpiritual work? If it was attempted to defend this bill on the ground that the clergy were dependent on the crown, were not the biſhops placed in a ſimilar dependence? The hon. baronet having illuſtrated theſe and ſome other points at large, concluded by moving, That, inſtead of 'now' the words 'three months' be ſubſtituted in the motion.

Mr. Jolliffe ſeconded this motion.

Sir W. Scott went at great length into the eccleſiaſtical and conſtitutional hiſtory of the country, to prove the legal ineligibility of clergymen to a ſeat in the houſe of commons. Before the reformation there was no heſitation of opinion in regarding holy orders as a ſacrament; after that period the profeſſion of a clergyman did not become a mere delegation, but it continued a high and myſterious ordinance, and peculiarly conſecrated man for the ſervice of God. A man by his crimes might render himſelf an object from whom ſuch a character ſhould be torn off, but he could not voluntarily diveſt himſelf of it; for holy orders became inextinguiſhable, even when he was turned over to the civil power for puniſhment. This would appear from conſulting eccleſiaſtical law and the law of the country. Holy orders were to be held in the light of holy matrimony: both were indiſſoluble according to the general law of the country, even in caſes of adultery, where the legiſlature did not interfere to diſſolve the tie. As to teſtimonials for preſentation to a benefice, they were never refuſed even to a layman, unleſs upon ſtrong objections againſt the purity and integrity of private character. What objections might have been urged againſt the reverend gentleman (Mr. Tooke) it was not for him to ſurmiſe: but, whatever may have been their nature, certain it was that they could not diveſt him of his clerical character. He could no more reſign his holy orders than a peer can reſign his nobility; both are fixed upon a man by the law of his country. Every miniſterial function performed by him (marriage for example) is as valid as if performed by any other clergyman, nor can he be recogniſed by the community in any other character: once ordained it is never in the power of a clergyman to recede from his profeſſion. That it ſhould be ſo is good for ſociety in the caſe of holy orders, as well as in the holy inſtitution of marriage. Though the indiſſolubility in both may be ſometimes attended with inconvenience and hardſhips to individuals, as in the bill before the houſe, it did not tend to impoſe any diſability which did not already exiſt. The houſe of commons was a lay aſſembly by the conſtitution of the country, and there appeared no neceſſity for trying the experiment of introducing clergymen into it. On theſe grounds he ſhould ſupport the bill.

Dr. Lawrence perfectly coincided in opinion with his learned friend.

Mr. Grey would not dwell upon the queſtion of the indelibility, or delibility of the clerical character: he was ready to admit the former, if that was all. He only contended that by the canon law there was no incompatibility between the functions of a clergyman and thoſe of a member of the legiſlature. On this the arguments in favour of the bill were principally founded; but he muſt continue to regard them as groundleſs. In all the countries of Europe, the repreſentatives of the clergy, as a diſtinct and independent body, had always a place in the legiſlature, and were employed in framing and paſſing of ſecular laws. On this ground he could not look upon it as an impeachment of the conſtitution to admit clergymen into the houſe of commons. If he did think it proper to exclude them, it would be for two reaſons: firſt, becauſe their attention to ſecular buſineſs might withdraw their attention from the diſcharge of their ſacred functions; and ſecondly, becauſe their admiſſion into the houſe of commons might open a new ſource of undue influence over

parliament. But whatever might be his opinion reſpecting the propriety or impropriety of admitting them into the legiſlature, he muſt continue to oppoſe the preſent bill, in as much as it was a declaratory act, and as it went farther than the nature of the caſe required.

The chancellor of the exchequer obſerved that the hon. gentleman who ſpoke laſt ſeemed to admit the indelibility of the clerical character, but contended that there was no incompatibility between the eccleſiaſtical character, and the exercile of the functions of the legiſlator. To this objection he would anſwer with his learned friend (ſir W. Scott) that the true character of the houſe of commons was that of a lay aſſembly, and though the canon law did not hold it ſuch, yet the *lex et conſuetudo parliamenti* always conſidered it in that light, except in the caſe of Mr. Ruſhworth. There were many miſchiefs that muſt flow from the admiſſion of clergymen into parliament, on the terms propoſed by the hon. gentleman. Such a colliſion of duties would render men wholly unfit for the diſcharge of the ſacred functions of religion, by diſtracting and haraſſing their attention between the allurements of worldly ambition, and the ſolemn performance of their high office as the miniſters of God. Such a confuſion could not be too carefully guarded againſt, and it was the object of the preſent bill to prevent it.

The queſtion was then put, the amendment negatived without a diviſion, and the bill read a third time. The ſpeaker was proceeding to put the queſtion, 'That it do paſs,' when

Mr. H. Tooke roſe, with the intention, he ſaid, of moving that the bill be recommitted.

The ſpeaker intimated, that at that ſtage ſuch a motion was irregular. It was open, however, to the hon. gentleman to propoſe any amendments he ſhould think fit.

Mr. H. Tooke ſaid, that from his regard to the reputation of the houſe, he ſhould avail himſelf of the opening. He ſhould be ſorry to ſee the act in its preſent ſtate go down to poſterity about the neck of the preſent parliament. If the fame of parliament was not ſtrangled by it, loaded with the various other acts lately paſſed to abridge the liberties of the ſubject, it could not hope to eſcape ſuffocation. The hon. gentleman then proceeded to point out various inconſiſtencies, incongruities, and abſurdities in the bill. He found particular fault with the preamble. It was there ſtated, that doubts had ariſen whether perſons in holy orders, &c. and it was afterward enacted that no miniſter of the goſpel in Scotland ſhould ſit in the houſe of commons. But would the right hon. and learned gentleman oppoſite to him, or would the bench of biſhops, allow that the Scots clergy were in holy orders? It was the doctrine of the church of Rome, of the church of England, and of every epiſcopal church, that none were, but ſuch to whom the Holy Spirit had been regularly tranſmitted from the apoſtles, and the biſhops, their ſucceſſors.—Therefore, all that had been ſaid with regard to the indelibility of the clerical character, to them was wholly inapplicable. Speaking of this indelibility, he aſked, whether Chriſtianity was indelible? Nobody would pretend that it was; yet it was conferred by a whole ſacrament, viz. by baptiſm, whereas orders were conferred by half a ſacrament, or at moſt by ſome fraction of one. Suppoſing the doctrines of the church to be ſuddenly changed, what became of this indelibility? In the reign of Edward the Sixth, the clergy all went to bed true proteſtants, and waked good catholics in the morning, for Mary was queen. If the legiſlature, exerciſing an undoubted right, were to change the eſtabliſhed creed, would the character of thoſe who had been ordained prieſts of the church of England remain indelible? No; it would change with the change of circumſtances. He profeſſed he could diſcover, in the ſpeech of the right hon. and learned gentleman, no proofs of learning whatever. He had dealt only in myſterious aſſertions, and if this was to be reckoned learning, the moſt learned man was the boldeſt. No adjudication had been produced! When had it been adjudged that a biſcuit-baker is eligible, an oilman, a porter-brewer, or a jobber in the ſtocks? Corruption was dreaded! But with whom would the reproach lie? With the ſeducer, not the ſeduced—not the clergy, but the miniſter. The proper way to guard againſt corruption, would be to look to the *electors*, not the *elected*. But to talk of the qualification of thoſe who chooſe the repreſentatives would be reckoned rank jacobiniſm. [Some one hollowed out Old Sarum!] The right hon. gentleman is in the right, ſaid Mr. Horne Tooke, Old Sarum was certainly in my mind. But the hon. gentleman is egregiouſly miſtaken, if he imagines that this conſideration will influence my opinions or profeſſions. I throw down Old Sarum on the floor; I abandon it, diſfranchiſe it, and its ſi-

ter boroughs. Thus get rid of me, and I ſhall think the day you do ſo the happieſt of my life. I am, indeed, very much obliged to the gentlemen who ſent me here, but I accepted their offer on no conditions. I am as independent as any man in this houſe: I did not even undertake to defend Old Sarum.

The hon. gentleman was here reminded by the ſpeaker, that he had made no motion, and that he ought to confine himſelf now to moving an amendment. He ſaid, he ſhould move one *pro forma*, but whether it paſſed or not he was very indifferent. After propoſing an alteration in the preamble, by which it was ſaid, that the act was paſſed becauſe the intermeddling of churchmen in politics had been found to be attended with great ſcandal to their own body, and great detriment to the public; he went on to give his opinion of the clergy in a very humourous manner.

Mr. Horne Tooke was proceeding to another part of the ſubject, when he was called to order, and the ſpeaker prepared to put the queſtion. There was a loud cry of withdraw, withdraw! Mr. Horne Tooke, and thoſe near him, cried out, no, no:—they did not wiſh to divide the houſe. The cry of withdraw was louder from the treaſury-bench than ever, and the gallery was actually cleared. The amendment, however, was negatived without a diviſion, and the bill paſſed, and ordered to be carried up to the lords.

Wedneſday, May 20.

The chancellor of the exchequer brought down a meſſage from his majeſty, ſtating, That his majeſty having taken into his royal conſideration the ſignal merits of gen. ſir Ralph Abercromby, during a long life ſpent in the ſervice of his country, had thought proper to confer upon his widow, lady Abercromby, the title of baroneſs Abercromby of Aboukir; and as his majeſty was anxious that her ladyſhip ſhould have an annuity of 2000l. per annum, which ſhould deſcend to the two next male heirs of gen. ſir Ralph Abercromby, recommended to his faithful commons to make proviſion accordingly.

Mr. Addington moved, that the conſideration of the meſſage be referred to a committee of the whole houſe.

Mr. Tierney took the opportunity of riſing to notice, what to him appeared very ſtrange conduct in adminiſtration toward admiral ſir Hyde Parker. The thanks of the houſe had been voted to that admiral, and to all thoſe officers and men under his command; yet, by the Gazette of Tueſday, a very marked diſtinction had been made between admiral Parker and admiral lord Nelſon, and admiral Graves. Both theſe officers ſerved under admiral Parker, and they both received the thanks of parliament; he therefore was at a loſs to conceive upon what ground that diſtinction had taken place, and thought that ſome explanation was highly neceſſary to allay the apprehenſions of the houſe, upon the propriety of the vote of thanks which they had paſſed.

Mr. Addington obſerved, that theſe were points upon which it would be highly improper to give information, eſpecially when called for in ſuch a manner. He acknowledged the high merit of admiral Parker, and the thanks of the houſe had been voted him for the judicious diſpoſition he had made of the Britiſh fleet off Copenhagen; but he was not prepared to ſtate the reaſons which induced government to recall that admiral from his command, and he did not think he had been called upon in a parliamentary manner for any explanation whatever.

Mr. Tierney roſe to reply, but was prevented by a cry of—order! order! He perſiſted, and ſaid, if he was not allowed to go on, he ſhould be obliged to make a regular motion, and bring on a diſcuſſion which the right hon. gentleman ſeemed anxious to avoid. He ſhould move that the vote of thanks be read.

The ſpeaker obſerved, it was unuſual to read ſuch votes, unleſs it was meant to found on them a motion.

Mr. Tierney ſaid, it was his intention. The vote was now read.

Mr. Grey then roſe, and proceeded to ſtate that admiral Parker had been in the action off Copenhagen, at leaſt, ſo far as to give his orders by ſignals, when

Mr. Harcourt moved, that the gallery ſhould be cleared, which was done accordingly.

Mr. Addington, when the houſe was reſumed, ſtated, that certain taxes propoſed for the ſervice of the year had been abandoned. The firſt of theſe was the tax propoſed upon printed goods, which had been given up, in conſequence of remonſtrances from all the great manufacturers of the country. This tax had been taken at 40,000l. The next duty which had been abandoned, was that upon pepper exported, and this relinquiſhment had taken place from the meaſure being petitioned againſt by the Eaſt-India company. This tax had been eſtimated to produce 92,000l. making together a ſum of

232,000l.—To make good this deficiency, he ſhould propoſe

An additional duty on probates of wills, where the property left amounted to 600l. of 10s. gradually increaſing ſo far as property of 100,000l. £. 120,000

An additional duty on deeds of 2s. in addition to 3s. of ſtamp-duty impoſed this ſeſſion - - 62,000

Upon ale licences an additional duty of 10s. 6d. each 32,000

An additional duty of 6d. per pack on cards, and 2s. 6d. per pair on dice - - 20,000

£. 234,000

Which was 2000l. more than the eſtimates of the duties abandoned. The reſolutions were then agreed to.

[To be continued.]

EGYPT.

Downing-ſtreet, April 28.

BY diſpatches received from lord Elgin, dated Conſtantinople, March 31, it appears that his lordſhip had received letters from lord Keith, ſtating that the army under the command of ſir Ralph Abercrombie effectuated a landing on the 8th inſt. on the peninſula of Aboukir, under a very heavy fire from cannons, mortars, and muſketry, the enemy having withdrawn the whole garriſon from Alexandria, and many detachments from the vicinity, to oppoſe them; and after making the neceſſary preparations on the 9th, 10th, and 11th, the army advanced on the 12th to within five miles of Alexandria; they there took a poſition, with their right toward the ſea, and their left ſupported by the lake Maadie, where ſir Sidney Smith, who was poſted there with his command of boats, was keeping up a communication with the natives, and ſupplying the army with freſh proviſions and water; that on the 13th, at ſeven in the morning, the enemy made an attack, and were repulſed with loſs about eleven: in the mean time the marines had been diſembarked, and attacked by land the caſtle of Aboukir, the only poſt in that peninſula occupied by the enemy; that on the 14th, at ſunſet, when the veſſel which brought this intelligence was under weigh, the troops on ſhore and the gun-veſſels were throwing ſhot and ſhells into Aboukir, and at the ſame moment a firing was heard toward Alexandria, which appeared from the Foudroyant to be a general attack.

The grand vizier had marched forward from Jaffa, on the 25th Feb. having, according to major Holloway's letters to lord Elgin, received a conſiderable reinforcement.

London Gazette Extraordinary.

Downing-ſtreet, May 3.

The following copy of a letter from lieut. gen. ſir Ralph Abercrombie, K. B. to the earl of Elgin, together with diſpatches from his lordſhip to his royal highneſs the duke of York and lord Hawkeſbury, of which the following are extracts, have been this day received.

Copy of a letter from ſir Ralph Abercrombie to the earl of Elgin, dated camp before Alexandria, March 16.

My lord,

ON the 1ſt inſt. the fleet arrived in ſight of Alexandria; on the 2d it anchored in Aboukir bay; the weather did not permit any debarkation before the 8th; on that day it was happily effected, under the moſt trying circumſtances. The boats had near a mile to row, and were for ſome time under the fire of 15 pieces of artillery, and the muſketry of 2500 men; ſtill the intrepidity of the troops overcame every difficulty. We took eight pieces of cannon.

On the 9th, the remainder of the army was landed. On the 12th, we marched forward to within two leagues of Alexandria, and one league of the enemy, who were advantageouſly poſted on a ridge, with their right to the canal of Alexandria, and their left to the ſea. On the 13th we moved forward to attack the enemy, and to turn their left. They did not, however, wait, but came down and attacked us. The action was warm; but the enemy were every where forced under the walls of Alexandria. Our loſs is conſiderable. Although col. Erſkine is wounded, he is doing well—he has loſt a leg. His regiment gained great credit, but ſuffered ſeverely. No officer of rank is killed, or dangerouſly wounded. Excuſe this ſcrawl, written on my knee.

R. ABERCROMBIE.

Extract of a letter from the earl of Elgin to his royal highneſs the duke of York, dated Conſtantinople, April 4.

As col. Antruther's letter to me, which accompanied that to col. Brownrigg, was

written on the 16th of March, I take the liberty of adding to your royal highneſs, that Menou having with 2000 cavalry joined the corps at Alexandria, attacked ſir Ralph Abercrombie on the 21ſt. The aſſault was vigorous; but the enemy were entirely repulſed with great loſs, not, however, before ſir Ralph Abercrombie, gen. Moore, gen. Hope, and ſir Sidney Smith, had been wounded ſlightly, and col. Abercrombie had loſt a limb. Col. Paget appears to have had a ſlight wound.

Lord Keith's laſt letter ſays all the wounded are ſurpriſingly well, conſidering they they are all by cannon or grape ſhot. I may add, that my janiſſary, who left Rhodes on the 27th, mentions, that ſome of the troops who came there firſt, or had been left ſick, were already ſo well as to have ſailed thence to join.

Nothing could have been more brilliant than our operations appear to have been.

Extract of a letter from lord Elgin to lord Hawkeſbury, dated Conſtantinople, April 14.

I have the happineſs of informing your lordſhip, that I have this moment received an expreſs from Rhodes, dated 27th March, with a ſeries of private accounts, of the ſucceſsful progreſs of ſir Ralph Abercrombie's army.

It appears that Menou muſt have ſet out from Cairo, on the firſt intelligence of ſir Ralph Abercrombie's landing. Meanwhile our army had advanced (under circumſtances far too honourable for the Britiſh arms, for me to attempt relating on the imperfect details I poſſeſs) and had taken poſt within three miles of Alexandria, where they had prepared againſt an attack from Menou, who, with 2000 cavalry, having formed a junction with the garriſon of Alexandria, came againſt our army on the 21ſt.

In this action we have to regret about 500 men killed and wounded; while the enemy poſitively loſt 2000 men killed and wounded, 500 men taken priſoners. On the preceding Wedneſday, Aboukir caſtle ſurrendered, and the Britiſh and Turkiſh flags were flying there.

London Gazette, May 9.

Downing ſtreet, May 9.

A DISPATCH addreſſed to the right hon. Henry Dundas, of which the following is a copy, was this day received at the office of the right hon. lord Hobart, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of State, from general ſir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. Commander in chief of his majeſty's troops ſerving in the Mediterranean.

Camp before Alexandria,
Sir, March 16.

Although it was not originally my intention to have commenced the operations of the Britiſh army in Egypt on the ſide of Alexandria, yet circumſtances aroſe which induced me to change my opinion. We were much longer delayed on the coaſt of Aſia Minor, than we had at firſt any reaſon to apprehend; and we were ultimately obliged to ſail from Marmarice in a very imperfect ſtate of preparation. I am fully ſenſible of the exertions of his majeſty's ambaſſador at the Ottoman Porte, as well as of the quarter maſter general, and the other officers who were ſent forward to provide for the neceſſities of the army. Our delays originated from other cauſes. For a conſiderable time previous to our ſailing the weather was extremely boiſterous, and the winds contrary. The moment that it became practicable to ſail with ſo large a fleet, lord Keith put to ſea. We left Marmarice on the 22d of February, and came in ſight of Alexandria on the 1ſt of March.

On the 2d, the fleet anchored in Aboukir bay. Until the 7th the ſea ran high, and no diſembarkation could be effected; on this day every arrangement was completed, and on the 8th, the troops forming the firſt diviſion, conſiſting of the reſerve, under the command of major general Moore; the brigade of guards, under the hon. major gen. Ludlow; and part of the firſt brigade, under the command of major gen. Coote, got into the boats early in the morning: they had, in general, from five to ſix miles to row, and did not arrive at the point of landing till ten o'clock. The front of diſembarkation was narrow, and a hill, which commanded the whole, ſeemed almoſt inacceſſible. The enemy were fully aware of our intention, were in force, and had every advantage on their ſide. The troops, however, notwithſtanding their being expoſed to a very ſevere cannonade, and under the fire of grape-ſhot, made good their landing, aſcended the hill, with an intrepidity ſcarcely to be paralleled, and forced the enemy to retire, leaving behind him ſeven pieces of artillery and a number of horſes.

The troops that aſcended the hill were the 23d regiment, and the four flank companies of the 40th, under the command of col. Spencer, whoſe coolneſs and good conduct major gen. Moore has mentioned to me in the higheſt terms of approbation.

It is impoſſible to paſs over the good order in which the 28th and the 42d regiments landed, under the command of brigadier general Oakes, who was attached to the reſerve under major gen. Moore; and the troops in general loſt not a moment in remedying any little diſorder which became unavoidable in a landing under ſuch circumſtances.—The diſembarkation of the army continued on that and the following day.

The troops which landed on the 8th advanced three miles the ſame day; and on the 12th the whole army moved forward, and came within ſight of the enemy, who was formed on an advantageous ridge, with his right to the canal of Alexandria, and his left toward the ſea.

It was determined to attack them on the morning of the 13th; and in conſequence the army marched in two lines by the left, with an intention to turn their right flank.

The troops had not been long in motion before the enemy deſcended from the heights on which they were formed, and attacked the leading brigades of both lines, which were commanded by major gen. Cradock and major general the earl of Cavan.

The 90th regiment formed the advanced guard of the front line, and the 92d that of the ſecond; both battalions ſuffered conſiderably, and behaved in ſuch a manner as to merit the praiſe both of courage and diſcipline. Major gen. Cradock immediately formed his brigade to meet the attack made by the enemy; and the troops changed their poſition with a quickneſs and preciſion which did them the greateſt honour. The remainder of the army followed ſo good an example, and were immediately in a ſituation not only to face, but to repel the enemy. The reſerve, under the command of major gen. Moore, which was on the right, on the change of the poſition of the army, moved on in column, and covered the right flank. The army continued to advance, puſhing the enemy with the greateſt vigour, and ultimately forcing them to put themſelves under the protection of the fortified heights which form the principal defence of Alexandria.

It was intended to have attacked them in this their laſt poſition; for which purpoſe the reſerve under the command of major gen. Moore, which had remained in column during the whole of the day, was brought forward, and the ſecond line, under the command of major gen. Hutchinſon, marched to the left, acroſs a part of the lake Mariotis, with a view to attack the enemy on both flanks; but on reconnoitring their poſition, and not being prepared to occupy it after it ſhould be carried, prudence required that the troops who had behaved ſo bravely, and who were ſtill willing to attempt any thing, however arduous, ſhould not be expoſed to a certain loſs, when the extent of the advantage could not be aſcertained. They were therefore withdrawn, and now occupy a poſition with their right to the ſea, and their left to the canal of Alexandria and lake Mariotis, about a league from the town of Alexandria.

I have the greateſt ſatisfaction in ſaying, that the conduct of the Britiſh and foreign troops under my command is deſerving of the higheſt praiſe; their courage and their diſcipline have been equally conſpicuous.

To all the general officers I am indebted for their zeal and intelligence.

From the hon. brigadier gen. Hope, adjutant general, and lieut. col. Anſtruther, quarter maſter general, I have received every teſtimony of zeal, and the moſt able aſſiſtance in the operations of the army; and to the other officers of the general ſtaff I feel obligations.

On the 8th the arrangements made by lord Keith were ſuch as to enable us to land at once a body of 6000 men.

The hon. capt. Cochrane, and thoſe other captains and officers of the royal navy who were intruſted with the diſembarkation, not only of the troops, but of the artillery, ammunition, proviſions, and ſtores of all kinds, have exerted themſelves in ſuch a manner as to claim the warmeſt acknowledgments of the whole army.

Sir Sidney Smith, and the other captains and officers of the navy under his command who landed with the army, have been indefatigable in their exertions in forwarding the ſervice on which they were employed.

The enemy have left a ſmall garriſon in Aboukir caſtle: it has been neceſſary to bring up a few pieces of heavy artillery, and there is reaſon to believe that it will ſpeedily ſurrender.

Majors Mac Kerras and Fletcher, of the royal engineers, who went down in the Penelope frigate to ſurvey the coaſt of Egypt, a ſhort time before we ſailed from Marmarice, were unfortunately ſurpriſed in a ſmall boat in Aboukir bay; the former was killed, and the latter taken priſoner.

Our communication with the fleet is at

preſent kept up by means of the lake of Aboukir. We have been fortunate enough to find water ſufficient for the ſupply of the army; and we begin to derive ſome ſupplies from the country.

I have the honour to incloſe herewith returns of the killed and wounded in the actions of the 8th and 13th inſt. together with a return of the artillery taken from the enemy on thoſe days. I have the honour to be, &c.

RA. ABERCROMBY.

P. S. I have had no means of aſcertaining the loſs of the enemy, but it muſt have been conſiderable.

Return of killed, wounded, and miſſing of the army under the command of general ſir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. Aboukir, March 8.

Total—4 officers, 4 ſerjeants, 94 rank and file, killed; 26 officers, 34 ſerjeants, 5 drummers, 450 rank and file, wounded; 1 officer, 1 ſerjeant, 1 drummer, 32 rank and file, miſſing.

Officers killed.

Enſign Warren, of the Coldſtream guards; major Ogle, of the 58th reg. hon. enſign Mead, of the 40th flank company; enſign England, of the 1ſt bat. 54th regiment.

Officers wounded.

Guards. Captains Plunkett, Frederick, Beadon, Myers; ſurgeon Roſe.

23d reg. Captains Lloyd and Pearſon.

42d reg. Lieut. col. James Stewart; capt. M'Quarrie; lieutenants Alexander Campbell, Dick, Frederick Campbell, Stewart Campbell, Charles Campbell, and enſign Wilſon.

58th reg. Capt. Beſt; enſign Rolt.

Corſican rangers. Capt. Panattini.

2d bat. royals. Capt. Alexander M'Donald; lieutenants James Graham, Thomas Fraſer, and Thomas Liſter.

1ſt bat. of the 54th. Capt. Shipley.

2d bat. of ditto. Lieut. George O'Halleren.

N. B. Lieut. Guittera, 1 ſerjeant, and 12 rank and file of the Corſican rangers, taken priſoners, are returned in the column of miſſing.

(Signed) JOHN HOPE, adj. gen.

Return of the killed, wounded, and miſſing of the army under the command of general ſir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. near Alexandria, March 13.

Total.—6 officers, 6 ſerjeants, 1 drummer, 143 rank and file, 21 horſes, killed; 66 officers, 1 quarter-maſter, 61 ſerjeants, 7 drummers, 945 rank and file, 5 horſes, wounded; 1 rank and file, miſſing.

Officers killed.

Coldſtream guards. Enſign Jenkinſon.

13th reg. Capt. Cheſter.

18th reg. Capt. Jones; brigade major Foſter.

28th reg. Capt. Godley; volunteer Laut.

30th reg. Enſign T. Rodgers.

50th reg. Lieut. Stewart.

Officers wounded.

26th light dragoons. Lieut. Woodgate.

Coldſtream guards. Capt. Beadon.

1ſt bat. of the 54th reg. Enſign T. C. Kirby.

2d bat. of the 54th reg. Captains Gibſon, Cairns, Roberts; lieutenants B. Stone, G. Mills; enſign J. Kelly.

92d reg. Lieut. col. Erſkine; captains Ramſay, Macdonald; lieutenants Macleod, Doule, M'Donald, F. Campbell, Clarke, R. Macdonald, Cameron; enſign Wilkie.

8th reg. Major Duke; captains M'Murdo, Fortye; lieutenants Church, O'Brien, Eaſon.

13th reg. Capt. Brown; lieutenants Dolphin, Serle, Copland, Handcock, Rich; enſigns Hewſon, Andrews, O'Maley.

90th reg. Col. Hill; lieut. col. Vigoreux; capt. Eden; lieutenants Tiſdell, Cartwright, Wright.

79th reg. Lieut. col. Macdonald; lieutenants Sutherland, Stuart; volunteer Alexander Cameron.

30th reg. Capt. John Douglas; lieut. Duncan, of the 21ſt regiment.

44th reg. Col. Tilſon; lieut. Brown; enſign Berwick.

De Rolle's reg. Lieut. col. baron Durler; major Sonnenburg; lieut. Bachenau.

Dillon's reg. Captain Renaud; lieut. Montureux; enſign Canillac.

28th reg. Capt. Bevan.

42d reg. Lieut. col. Dixon; capt. A. Campbell; lieut. S. Fraſer.

Corſicans. Lieut. Guſlami.

Royal artillery. Capt. T. Boger; lieut. Sturgeon; quarter maſter commiſſary Lane.

Lieut. O'Brien, of the 8th regiment, ſince dead of his wounds.

(Signed) JOHN HOPE, A. G.

March 18. Lieut. col. Bryce, of the Coldſtream guards, wounded and taken priſoner on the evening of the 14th inſt. and ſince dead of his wounds.

JOHN HOPE, A. G.

Return of braſs and iron ordnance captured on the 8th inſt. at and near Aboukir.

Braſs, in French meaſure.—1 twenty-ſix pounder, 1 eight pounder, 3 four pounders, 1 ſix-inch howitzer.

Iron.—1 nine pounder, 1 ſix pounder, one ammunition waggon, and a ſmall quantity of ſhells, ſhot, and muſket ammunition.

Four field pieces, with a quantity of ammunition, taken on the 13th.

Admiralty Office, May 9.

Copy of a letter from admiral lord Keith, K. B. commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Mediterranean, to Evan Nepean, eſq. dated on board the Foudroyant, in the bay of Aboukir, 10th March, 1801.

Sir,

My diſpatches of the 22d ult. by the Speedwell, will have acquainted you, for the information of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that the armament on that day quitted the harbour of Marmarice for this place, which the whole fleet reached on the 2d inſt. the Turkiſh gun-boats and kaicks excepted, all of which bore up, by night, for Macri, Cyprus, and other ports, during the prevalence of ſtrong weſterly gales that we encountered on the paſſage.

Too much of the day of our arrival here had elapſed, before all the ſhips could get to anchorage, to admit of the landing being effected before the approach of night; and an unfortunate ſucceſſion of ſtrong northerly gales, attended by a heavy ſwell, rendered it impoſſible to diſembark before the 8th. The neceſſary preparations were made on the preceding evening. The boats began to receive the troops at two o'clock in the morning, and at three the ſignal was made for their proceeding to rendezvous near the Mondovi, anchored about a gun ſhot from the ſhore, where it had been determined that they were to be aſſembled and properly arranged: but ſuch was the extent of the anchorage occupied by ſo large a fleet, and ſo great the diſtance of many of them from any one given point, that it was not till nine the ſignal could be made for the boats to advance toward the ſhore.

The whole line immediately began to move with great celerity toward the beach, between the caſtle of Aboukir and the entrance of the Sed, under the direction of the hon. capt. Cochrane, of his majeſty's ſhip the Ajax, aſſiſted by captains Stevenſon, Scott, Larmour, Apthorpe, and Morriſon, of the Europa, Stately, Diadem, Druid, and Thiſbe, and the reſpective agents of tranſports, the right flank being protected by the Cruelle cutter, and the Dangereuſe, and Janiſſary gun-veſſels; and the left, by the Entreprenante cutter, Malta ſchooner, and Negreſſe gun-veſſel, with two launches of the fleet on each, armed for the purpoſe of ſupplying the places of the Turkiſh gun-veſſels, of whoſe ſervice I had been deprived. Captain ſir Sidney Smith, of the Tigre, with the captains Riboleau, Guion, Saville, Burn, and Hillyar, of the Aſtrea, Eurus, Experiment, Blonde, and Niger, appointed, with a detachment of ſeamen, to co-operate with the army, had the charge of the launches, with the field artillery accompanying the troops. The Tartarus and Fury were placed in proper ſituations for throwing ſhot and ſhells with advantage; and the Petterell, Cameleon, and Minorca, were moored as near as poſſible, with their broadſides to the ſhore.

The enemy had not failed to avail himſelf of the unavoidable delays to which we had been expoſed, for ſtrengthening the naturally difficult coaſt to which we were to approach. The whole garriſon of Alexandria, ſaid to amount to near three thouſand men, reinforced with many ſmall detachments that had been obſerved to advance from the Roſetta Branch, was appointed for its defence. Field pieces were placed on the moſt commanding heights, and in the intervals of the numerous ſand hills which cover the ſhore, all of which were lined with muſquetry; the beach on either wing being flanked with cannon, and parties of cavalry held in readineſs to advance.

The fire of the enemy was ſucceſſively opened from their mortars and field pieces, as the boats got within their reach; and as they approached to the ſhore the exceſſive diſcharge of grape-ſhot and of muſquetry from behind the ſand-hills ſeemed to threaten them with deſtruction, while the caſtle of Aboukir on the right flank maintained a conſtant and haraſſing diſcharge of large ſhot and ſhells; but the ardour of our officers and men was not to be damped. No moment of heſitation intervened. The beech was arrived at, a footing obtained; the troops advanced, and the enemy were forced to relinquiſh all the advantageous poſitions which they had held.

The boats returned without delay for the ſecond diviſion; and before the evening the whole army, with few exceptions, was landed, with ſuch articles of proviſions and ſtores as required the moſt immediate attention.

I refer to the general's report for the loſs ſuſtained by the army in this dangerous and difficult ſervice. I incloſe the caſualties of the ſquadron and tranſports,

and feel much ſatisfaction in conveying to their lordſhips my full teſtimony to the merits of all the officers and men employed under my orders on this arduous occaſion. I have the honour to be, &c.

KEITH.

Copy of a letter from admiral lord Keith, K. B. commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Mediterranean, to Evan Nepean, eſq. dated in Aboukir bay, the 16th March, 1801.

Sir,

The army had a ſharp conflict with the enemy on the 13th, as they advanced toward Alexandria, for the particulars of which, I refer to the general's details. I incloſe, for their lordſhips information, an account of the loſs ſuffered on that occaſion by the detachment of ſeamen under the direction of capt. ſir Sidney Smith, and by the battalion of marines under the command of lieut. col. Smith, both co-operating with the army on ſhore. I have the honour to be, &c.

KEITH.

Return of ſeamen employed on ſhore under the orders of capt. ſir William Sidney Smith, killed and wounded in the action of the 13th March, 1801.

Total—1 officer, 5 ſeamen killed, 19 ſeamen wounded.

Officer's name wounded—Mr. Wright, midſhipman of the Northumberland.

Return of killed and wounded in the battalion of marines, commanded by lieu. col. Smith, ſerving with the army under the orders of gen. ſir Ralph Abercromby, in the action of the 13th March, 1801.

Two officers, 22 rank and file killed. 4 officers, 2 ſerjeants, 2 drummers, 27 rank and file wounded.—Total 59.

Names of officers killed and wounded.

Fane Huſſey, firſt lieutenant (rank in battalion captain) killed.

John Linyee Shea, ditto, killed.

William Minto, captain (rank in bat. major), wounded.

Robert Forkington, capt. wounded.

John Parry, firſt lieut. ditto.

George Peebles, ſecond lieut. ditto.

KEITH.

A liſt of officers and ſeamen belonging to the ſhips of war and tranſports, killed, wounded, and miſſing, in diſembarking the army in Aboukir bay, the 8th March, 1801;

Total.—22 ſeamen killed; 7 officers 65 ſeamen wounded; 3 ſeamen miſſing.

Names of officers wounded.

Stately, Lieut. John Bray.

Europa, Lieut. George Thomas.

Dolphin, Lieut. Francis Collins.

Swiftſure, Mr. John Finchley, midſhipman.

Charon, Richard Ogleby, maſter's mate.

Iphigenia, John Donnellan, midſhipman.

Dictator, Edward Robinſon, midſhipman, ſince dead.

(Signed) KEITH.

Extract of a letter from the right hon. lord Keith, commanding his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Mediterranean, to Evan Nepean, eſq. ſecretary of the Admiralty, dated 18th March.

Aboukir caſtle has capitulated. In the afternoon the capitan bay arrived with two ſhips of the line, four or five frigates and corvettes, and ſome ſmall veſſels of the country.

London Gazette Extraordinary.
Downing-ſtreet, May 15.

DISPATCHES, of which the following are copies, addreſſed to the right hon. Henry Dundas, have been received this morning at the office of the right hon. lord Hobart, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate:

Camp before Alexandria, March 19.

Sir,

I have the honour to incloſe herewith a copy of the articles of capitulation of the fort of Aboukir, together with a return of the priſoners ſurrendered, and of the ordnance and ſtores found in the fort.

I have the honour to be, &c.

RA. ABERCROMBY.

The right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

[Here follow the articles of capitulation.]

Return of ordnance and ſtores found in the fort of Aboukir, March 18.

Braſs.—Guns, 4 French twenty-four pounders. Mortars, 2 French twelve-inch.

Iron.—Guns, 3 French eight-pounders, 3 French three-pounders. Travelling carriages, 4 twenty-four pounders. Standing ditto, 3 eight pounders, and 3 three-pounders. 2 iron beds for mortars; 800 round and 40 grape twenty-four pound ſhot; 100 round and 50 grape eight-pound ſhot; 600 empty ſhells; 90 barrels of powder, of 200lb. each; 170 French muſkets; 140 cartouch boxes; 200 muſket flints; 5 cwt. of match.

N. B. There are a quantity of ſmall ſtores not yet taken account of.

(Signed) GEO. COOKSON,
Brigade Major, Royal Artillery.

Camp, four miles from Alexandria,
Sir, April 5th.

I have the honour to acquaint you, that on the 18th of March, an affair took place between a patrole of our cavalry and one of the enemy in the neighbourhood of Alexandria: I have to regret that col. Archdall of the 12th light dragoons received a wound in the arm, which has since been amputated, and that we have loft fome valuable officers and men. Inclofed herewith I have the honour to tranfmit to you a lift of the killed, wounded, and taken prifoners on that day.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) J. H. HUTCHINSON.

Return of the killed, wounded, and miffing, of major gen. Finch's brigade, March 18.

Total.—1 quarter maffer, 7 rank and file, 23 horfes, killed; 2 officers, 1 ferjeant, 6 rank and file, 12 horfes, wounded; 3 officers, 1 quarter maffer, 12 rank and file, 7 horfes, miffing.

Officer killed.

26th light dragoons.—Quarter maffer John Simpfon.

Officers wounded.

12th light dragoons.—Col. Mervyn Archdall.

26th ditto.—Lieut. and adjutant John Hutte.

Officers taken prifoners.

12th light dragoons.—Capt. the hon. Pierce Butler; cornet earl Lindfay Daniel.

26th ditto. — Capt. Charles Turner, (brigade major;) quarter maffer, Abraham Moulton.

Head-quarters, camp, four miles from
Sir, Alexandria, April 1.

I have the honour to inform you, that, after the affair of the 13th of March, the army took a pofition about four miles from Alexandria, having a fandy plain in their front, the fea on their right, and the canal of Alexandria (at prefent dry) and the lake of Aboukir on their left. In this pofition we remained without any material occurrence taking place till the 21ft of March, when the enemy attacked us with nearly the whole of their collected force, amounting, probably, to 11 or 12,000 men. Of 14 demi-brigades of infantry, which the French have in this country, 12 appear to have been engaged, and all their cavalry, with the exception of one regiment.

The enemy made the following difpofition of their army:

Gen. Lanuffe was on their left, with four demi-brigades of infantry, and a confiderable body of cavalry, commanded by gen. Roize; generals Friant and Rampou were in the centre, with five demi-brigades; gen. Regnier on the right, with two demi-brigades and two regiments of cavalry: general D'Eftain commanded the advanced guard, conffting of one demi-brigade, fome light troops, and a detachment of cavalry.

The action commenced about an hour before day light, by a falfe attack on our left, which was under major gen. Craddock's command, where they were foon repulfed. The moft vigorous efforts of the enemy were however directed againft our right, which they ufed every poffible exertion to turn. The attack on that point was begun with great impetuofity by the French infantry, fuftained by a ftrong body of cavalry, who charged in columns. They were received by our troops with equal ardour, and the utmoft fteadinefs and difcipline. The conteft was unufually obftinate; the enemy were twice repulfed, and their cavalry were repeatedly mixed with our infantry. They, at length, retired, leaving a prodigious number of dead and wounded on the field.

While this was paffing on the right, they attempted to penetrate our centre with a column of infantry, who were alfo repulfed, and obliged to retreat with lofs. The French, during the whole of the action, refufed their right. They puffhed forward, however, a corps of light troops, fupported by a body of infantry and cavalry, to keep our left in check, which certainly was, at that time, the weakeft part of our line.

We have taken about 200 prifoners (not wounded); but it was impoffible to purfue our victory, on account of our inferiority in cavalry, and becaufe the French had lined the oppofite hills with cannon, under which they retired.. We alfo have fuffered confiderably; few more fevere actions have ever been fought, confidering the numbers engaged on both fides. We have fuftained an irreparable lofs in the perfon of our never fufficiently to be lamented commander in chief, fir Ralph Abercromby, who was mortally wounded in the action, and died on the 28th of March. I believe he was wounded early, but he concealed his fituation from thofe about him, and continued in the field, giving his orders with that coolnefs and perfpicuity, which had ever marked his character, till long after the action was over, when he fainted through weaknefs and lofs of blood. Were it permitted for a foldier to regret any one who has fallen

in the ſervice of his country, I might be excuſed for lamenting him, more than any other perſon; but it is ſome conſolation to thoſe who tenderly loved him, that as his life was honourable, ſo was his death glorious. His memory will be recorded in the annals of his country—will be ſacred to every Britiſh ſoldier, and embalmed in the recollection of a grateful poſterity. It is impoſſible for me to do juſtice to the zeal of the officers, and to the gallantry of the ſoldiers of this army. The reſerve, againſt whom the principal attack of the enemy was directed, conducted themſelves with unexampled ſpirit. They reſiſted the impetuoſity of the French infantry, and repulſed ſeveral charges of cavalry. Major gen. Moore was wounded at their head, though not dangerouſly. I regret, however, the temporary abſence from the army of this highly valuable and meritorious officer, whoſe counſel and co-operation would be ſo highly neceſſary to me at this moment. Brigadier general Oakes was wounded nearly at the ſame time, and the army has been deprived of the ſervice of an excellent officer. The 28th and 42d regiments acted in the moſt diſtinguiſhed and brilliant manner. Col. Paget, an officer of great promiſe, was wounded at the head of the former regiment; he has ſince, though not quite recovered, returned to his duty.

Brigadier gen. Stuart and the foreign brigade ſupported the reſerve with much promptneſs and ſpirit; indeed, it is but juſtice to this corps to ſay, that they have, on all occaſions, endeavoured to emulate the zeal and ſpirit exhibited by the Britiſh troops, and have perfectly ſucceeded. Major gen. Ludlow deſerves much approbation for his conduct when the centre of the army was attacked: under his guidance the guards conducted themſelves in the moſt cool, intrepid, and ſoldier-like manner; they received very effectual ſupport by a movement of the right of gen. Coote's brigade. Brigadier gen. Hope was wounded in the hand; the army has been deprived of the ſervice of a moſt active, zealous, and judicious officer.

The loſs of the enemy has been great; it is calculated at upward of 3000 killed, wounded, and taken priſoners. General Roize, who commanded the cavalry, which ſuffered conſiderably, was killed in the field. Generals Lanuſſe and Bodet are ſince dead of their wounds. I have been informed that ſeveral other general officers, whoſe names I do not know, have been either killed or wounded.

I cannot conclude this letter without ſolemnly aſſuring you, that, in the arduous conteſt in which we are at preſent engaged, his majeſty's troops in Egypt have faithfully diſcharged their duty to their country, and nobly upheld the fame of the Britiſh name and nation. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) J. H. HUTCHINSON.

Herewith I have the honour to incloſe a liſt of the killed and wounded on the 21ſt of March.

Return of the killed, wounded, and miſſing, of the army under the command of gen. ſir Ralph Abercromby, K.B. near Alexandria, 21ſt March.

Total.—10 officers, 9 ſerjeants, 224 rank and file, 2 horſes, killed; 60 officers, 48 ſerjeants, 3 drummers, 1082 rank and file, wounded; 3 officers, 1 ſerjeant, 28 rank and file, miſſing.

Officers killed.

3d guards. Enſign Campbell.

42d reg. Major Biſſet; lieutenants Colin Campbell, Robert Anderſon, A Stewart.

58th reg. Lieut. Jocelyn.

Stuart's reg. Col. Dutens; lieutenants Duvergier, and Dejean.

2d bat. of the 54th foot. Capt. J. Gibſon.

Officers wounded.—Staff.

His excellency ſir Ralph Abercromby, K.B. commander in chief; major gen. Moore; brigadier general, the hon. John Hope, adjutant general; brigadier gen. Oakes; brigadier gen. Lawſon; capt. Doyle, brigade major; capt. St. Pern, ditto, ſince dead; capt. Anderſon, aid-de-camp to major gen. Moore.

Officers wounded.

3d guards. Captains Rooke, Anſley, Deare.

Royals. Captain J. C. Gardener; lieutenants Conror, and Predam.

92d reg. Capt. Cameron; lieutenant Mathiſon.

50th reg. Capt. Ogilvy; lieutenants Campbell, and Tilſby; enſign Rowe.

79th reg. Lieut. Roſs.

Queen's reg. Enſign Allman.

30th reg. Capt. Smith; lieut. James.

44th reg. Lieutenant colonel Ogilvy, ſince dead.

89th reg. Capt. Blake; lieut. Agnew.

Stuart's reg. Captains Miſſett, Mahony, Richardſon; lieutenants M'Carthy, Sutton, Hutton, Zeheuder, Loreg, Girard; enſign O'Herman.

De Rolle's reg. Lieutenant Mitzger; adjutant La Ville.

Dillon's reg. Capt. Dupont, Rinaud, D'Heral; lieutenants Laury, and D'Aville.

23d reg. Lieut. Cook.

28th reg. Lieut. col. Paget; lieutenants John Meacham, Hearn, Ford.

1ſt bat. 40th reg. Lieut. Southwell.

42d reg. Major Sterling; capt. D. Stuart; lieutenants Hamilton Row, A. M'Nicol, A. Donaldſon, J. M. Sutherland, A. Grant, A. M. Cunningham, Frederick Campbell; enſign M'Kenzie.

58th reg. Lieut. Curry and Toole.

Royal artillery. Lieutenants Gamble, Campbell, Lawſon, Burſlem.

(Signed) JOHN ABERCROMBY, Deputy adjutant general.

N. B. One ſtand of colours and two field pieces taken.

Admiralty-office, May 15.

Lieut. Corbett, late of the Fulminante cutter, arrived this morning from the coaſt of Egypt, with a diſpatch from admiral lord Keith, commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Mediterranean, to Evan Nepean, eſq. ſecretary of the Admiralty, dated on board his majeſty's ſhip Foudroyant, in the bay of Aboukir, 1ſt April, 1801, of which the following is a copy:

Sir,

I have very great concern in acquainting you, that in a deſperate attack upon our lines by the French army on the morning of the 21ſt ult. my gallant and reſpectable colleague, gen. ſir Ralph Abercromby, unfortunately received a wound, of which he died on board this ſhip on the 28th. It is unneceſſary to ſay how much this calamity has been regretted by the army and by the fleet. Their lordſhips will obſerve that the enemy were repulſed with very great loſs. I incloſe, for their information, a copy of ſir Sidney Smith's report of that ſuſtained by the detachment of ſeamen ſerving under his orders; and have the pleaſure of adding, that his own wound has not been ſo material as to deprive me of his ſervices. The marines were not engaged, having been, previouſly to the action, appointed to the duty of Aboukir caſtle, and its vicinity.

I have the honour to be, &c.

KEITH.

P. S. The capitan pacha arrived on the 26th ult. with three ſail of the line and a body of troops; and on the following day a Turkiſh vice admiral joined.

Return of officers and ſeamen, employed on ſhore, under the orders of captain ſir William Sidney Smith, killed and wounded in an action with the enemy, on the 21ſt of March.

Total. 1 officer, 3 ſeamen, killed; 2 officers, 18 ſeamen, wounded.

Name of officer killed.

Minotaur. Mr. Krebs, maſter's mate.

Names of officers wounded.

Tigre. Sir W. Sidney Smith, knt.

Swiftſure. Lieutenant Lewis Davis.

(Signed) KEITH.

From the London Gazette, May 16.

Downing-ſtreet, May 16.

BY advices received this morning from major Holloway, dated at the camp of the grand vizir at Gaza, March 20, 1801, it appears, that on the 18th of that month, 1000 Aſiatic cavalry advanced from that place, and on the following day, 1000 Arab cavalry. The body is to be under the command of tahir paſha, as an advanced guard. On its arrival at El Ariſh, it is to halt a day or two until Mahomet paſha arrives with a very conſiderable part of the army, probably about 5000 men, when tahir paſha is to advance to Catieh. It is the grand vizir's intention, that theſe 2000 cavalry ſhould join the Britiſh army whenever the commander in chief may require it.

It alſo appears, that djeggar paſha has entered into an accommodation of all differences, and ordered 5000 of his troops to join the Imperial army, for the purpoſe of the expulſion of the enemy from Egypt. The firſt party that joined conſiſted of about 450 good cavalry, well mounted; and ſeveral parties have joined ſince.

CONTINENTAL ADVICES.

SWEDEN.

Carlſcrona, April 23.

ON the 19th inſt. the Engliſh appeared off the entrance of the harbour, and ſent a frigate with a flag of truce, and a letter in the Engliſh language to the governor, of which the following are the contents:

'On board the London, 18th April.

'The Daniſh court having been induced to conclude an armiſtice, by which the unfortunate diſputes between the courts of Denmark and St. James have been accommodated, and as I am directed to require an explicit declaration from the court of Sweden, relative to its intention to

adhere to, or abandon the hoſtile meaſures which it has taken in conjunction with Ruſſia, againſt the rights and intereſts of Great Britain, I have the honour to tranſmit to your excellency this letter, that I may receive in anſwer a declaration of the court of Sweden, with reſpect to this important object, and ſhall conduct my future operations according to this anſwer, which I expect to receive within 48 hours.

'I have the honour to be,

(Signed) 'HYDE PARKER,

'Commander in chief of the Britiſh fleet in the Baltic.'

Vice-admiral Cronſtedt, who now has the command here, by order of his Swediſh majeſty, who was then at Malmo, immediately returned a proviſory anſwer, to the following purport:

'That as only a military officer, he could not undertake to anſwer a queſtion which did not come within the particular circle of his duty; but that his Swediſh majeſty had declared, that he ſhould ſoon be at Carlſcrona, and that he would then notify to the admiral his reſolution.'

Yeſterday afternoon his majeſty arrived here, and cauſed the following anſwer to be tranſmitted to admiral Parker, by vice-admiral Cronſtedt.

'Admiral,

'The king, my maſter, has commanded me to communicate to you the following official anſwer to the letter which I had the honour to receive from you, on the 18th inſtant.

'Convinced that your excellency is perfectly ſenſible of the importance and ſacred nature of promiſes, when once made, his majeſty conceives that the following explicit declaration cannot be unexpected by your excellency: that is, that his Swediſh majeſty will not, for a moment, fail to fulfil, with fidelity and ſincerity, the engagements he has entered into with his allies; and that, without any reference to the particular intervention of another power, under whatever name it may be, and the effects of which can never be extended to the common intereſts of the hitherto neutral powers.

'This is the firm, unalterable reſolution of his majeſty.

'Equally induced by inclination, and by duty, to conſider the affairs of his ſincere allies as his own, his Swediſh majeſty, however, will not refuſe to liſten to equitable propoſals for accommodating the preſent diſpute, made by deputies furniſhed with proper authority, on the part of the king of Great Britain, to the United Northern Powers.

'C. O. CRONSTEDT.

Carlſcrona, April 23.

GERMANY.

Munich, April 19.—Letter from general Moreau to the archduke Charles:

Saltzburgh, March 25.

I have the honour to announce to your highneſs, that, agreeably to the treaty of Luneville, I have received orders to evacuate the hereditary eſtates of Auſtria, on the 5th of April, and the empire between the 5th and 10th of May. I alſo learn, that, by the 19th article of that treaty, the troops of his majeſty the emperor are, by the 5th of April, to return into his hereditary dominions. At my departure, therefore, I ſhall reſign the protection of the different ſtates to the troops of the princes to whom they belong, or to the militia of the inhabitants. Concerning the more particular arrangements for the movement of theſe troops, I ſhall expect your royal highneſs' anſwer at Munich.

I am much ſurpriſed that I have not received news of the reſtoration of your health. It is what, from the regard I have long had for your highneſs, I moſt ſincerely deſire.

(Signed) MOREAU.

The Archduke's anſwer:

General, Vienna, May 28.

I have received your letter, announcing the evacuation of the hereditary dominions of Auſtria by the French troops, and other diſpoſitions relative to that event. I ſhall, in conſequence, give the neceſſary orders to the Auſtrian troops. As to the contingents of the empire in the Upper Palatinate, I ſhall inform the Swabian troops of your arrangements, that they may, in concert with you, ſo regulate their march, as not to arrive at the different ſtations till you ſhall have quitted them. In regard to the other troops of the empire—their general, the prince of Reus, will, in a like manner, concert meaſures with the French army in Franconia. I ſhall appoint troops to enter after yours into Braunau, Kuffſtein, and Scharnitz, and to take poſſeſſion of them agreeably to the convention of Steyer. I much regret, general, that circumſtances oblige you to leave this country before I can have it in my power to ſee and become perſonally acquainted with you, which I have long deſired, that I might aſſure you of my ſincere and particular regard for you.

(Signed) CHARLES.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

APRIL 30.

DISPATCHES were yeſterday morning received by government from lord Carysfort, at Berlin, and ſir James Crawford, at Hamburgh. Lord Hawkeſbury, after the arrival of the diſpatches, addreſſed the following letter to the lord-mayor:

Downing-ſtreet, April 29.

My Lord,

I have great ſatisfaction in informing you, that by letters received this day from lord Carysfort and ſir James Crawford, the courts of Berlin and Copenhagen have determined to reopen the rivers of the north of Germany, and that all veſſels whatever will be allowed to navigate thoſe rivers without moleſtation.

I beg your lordſhip will have the goodneſs to make this intelligence as public as poſſible in the city.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HAWKESBURY.

The right hon. the Lord-mayor.

Duel.—Colonel Whittam went lately to Drury-lane theatre, with a party of ladies. In the front row of the box in which they were, there ſat a gentleman with his hat on. The colonel requeſted him, as a matter of accommodation to the ladies, to pull it off; which, however, he refuſed to do, at the ſame time making uſe of expreſſions which the colonel felt himſelf called upon to notice. High words enſued, cards were exchanged, and the parties met next morning in Hyde-park, when the colonel received a wound in the breaſt; which, however, has been pronounced to be not of a dangerous nature.

A ſimilar meeting lately took place near Fort Monkton, between lieutenants D—— and H——, of the Weſt Norfolk regiment. After ſeveral fruitleſs attempts to reconcile the parties, they fired, and the latter was ſo ſeverely wounded in the groin, that he expired about eleven o'clock the ſame evening.

MAY 1.

COURT of EXCHEQUER, April 28.

Morris and others, *v.* The Warden and Minor Canons of St. Paul's.

The queſtion in this caſe was, whether the plaintiffs and the other inhabitants of the pariſh of St. Gregory, in the city of London, were liable to pay 2s 9d, or a leſs ſum in the pound, on the rent of their houſes, in lieu of tithes, to the minor canons.

The plaintiffs alleged that the pariſh of St. Gregory had been uſed and accuſtomed at all times, even before the 37th of Henry VIII, down to 1795, to pay only to the amount of about 90l a year to the minor canons as a cuſtomary payment, and that therefore they were within the proviſo of that act of parliament. But if the minor canons were entitled to 2s 9d in the pound, it would now exceed 1300l per annum.

After an excellent ſumming up from the chief baron, the gentlemen of the jury withdrew about a quarter of an hour, and then found a verdict for the defendants.

MAY 5.

The following Ukaſe has lately appeared at Peterſburgh: 'As we wiſh to afford our faithful ſubjects all means of extending their trade, which is the ſource of proſperity, as well for the ſtate as individuals; we order that all the prohibitions, hitherto made againſt the exportation of corn, ſhall be removed; and we permit the exportation of all kinds of grain conformably to the principles of the Tariff of 1797. ALEXANDER.'

MAY 8.

Yeſterday was held the anniverſary meeting of the Sons of the Clergy, at which were preſent his royal highneſs the duke of Cumberland; his grace the archbiſhop of Canterbury, preſident; his grace the archbiſhop of York; the right hon. the lord mayor; the biſhops of London, Winchester, Litchfield, Lincoln, Glouceſter, Chicheſter, Oxford, and Meath; lord Harewood; the right hon. William Wyndham; aldermen Boydell, Curtis, Watſon, and Perchard; ſheriffs Perring and Cadell, with many of the clergy and laity. The ſermon was preached by the Rev. William Liſle Bowles, A. M. rector of Dumbleton, in Glouceſterſhire. The text from Iſaiah, chapter lxi. v. 3.

Collection at the rehearſal	£56 3 6
At church, on the anniverſary	201 12 6
At the hall - - -	535 12 8
	£793 8 8

The anniverſary of the Literary Fund, was held yeſterday at the Free Maſons' tavern, ſir James Bland Burges in the chair. The duke of Somerſet, ſir J. H. Cox, meſſrs. Williams, the members for

Marlow, ſir Robert Clayton, Mr. Drummond, the late chargé d'affaires at Denmark, and ſeveral other perſons of eminent rank, were preſent. Meſſrs. Boſcawen, Fitzgerald, and Birch, favoured the company with ſome poetic recitations. A piece was alſo read, from the pen of Mr. d'Iſraeli. This annual feſtival went off with great *eclat*, and was enjoyed by men who have not only learned, but actually enjoy 'the luxury of doing good.'

MAY 10.

The Clackmananſhire Farmer Club having appointed the third Thurſday of April laſt, for their annual ploughing match, the ploughmen met in a field, the property of John Fra. Erſkine, eſq. of Mar, containing about forty-two acres, well adapted for the purpoſe, having a ſlope to the north and ſouth, and commanding a very extenſive proſpect. Having caſt lots for the ſeveral pieces of ground, and each man having taking his ſtation, upon a ſignal being made, at one moment all the ploughs were, to the number of one hundred and five, ſtarted from the ſummit of the hill, the one half going north and the other ſouth, preſenting to a very great number of ſpectators a ſcene, moſt pleaſant in appearance and beneficial in its conſequences, each ploughman earneſtly ſtriving for ſuperiority.

The ploughing was in general executed in the beſt ſtyle, and medals and premiums were adjudged to thoſe whoſe performance excelled.

Since the eſtabliſhment of the Farmer Club in this county, and the annual competition for prizes, perhaps no diſtrict of country correſponding to its ſize has produced ſo many excellent ploughmen, nor has made greater improvement in agriculture. To the gentlemen who compoſe this ſociety the county is much indebted for the unremitting attention they have paid toward its general intereſt.

After the ploughing match was finiſhed, the ſociety, with many of the gentlemen who came from a diſtance, dined together, and ſpent the day in great harmony. Among many appropriate toaſts they drank, 'to that thrice happy day when the deſolating ſword ſhall be beat into ploughſhares.'

MAY 11.

Diſpatches were yeſterday received at the office of lord Hobart, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, from lieutenant general Trigge, commander in chief of his majeſty's forces in the Leeward and Windward Caribbee Iſlands, and likewiſe from rear-admiral Duckworth, commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips at Barbadoes, to Evan Nepean, eſq. ſecretary of the admiralty, containing accounts of the capitulation of the following Iſlands in the Weſt Indies—St. Bartholomew's, on the 20th of March; St. Martin's, on the 24th of March; St. Thomas', on the 28th of March; and St. Croix, on the 31ſt of March.

MAY 14.

An inſtitution has been founded, under the immediate patronage of his royal highneſs the duke of York, for rearing up, and educating to the profeſſion of arms, one thouſand children, the legal offſprings of Britiſh ſoldiers. The ground is purchaſed of ſir W. Farquhar, for the erection of this national ſeminary, near Chelſea college. The funds are to be derived from a parliamentary grant, and one halfpenny out of each ſoldier's daily pay. The whole ſuperintendance is to be under the management of a governor, and a board of viſitors.

MAY 19.

Bonaparte's invincible ſtandard was yeſterday brought to lord Hobart's office, at Whitehall, by Mr. Baldwin, the Britiſh conſul at Egypt. The conſular inſignia of the republic is emblazoned on it. It is ſo murh ſhattered and defaced by ſervice that the inſcriptions recording its various victories can, with difficulty, be traced. 'Le Paſſage de la Piave, Le Paſſage du Tagliamento, Le Paſſage du L'Iſonzo, and La Priſe de Gratzy,' are tolerably diſtinct, but ſcarcely any veſtige remains of the affair of the 'Pont di Lodi.' The laurels ſo dearly earned and ſo long worn by this famous brigade now add to the trophies of the Britiſh troops, by whom it has been compietely annihilated.

MAY 21.

The lord-mayor nominated the following gentlemen for ſheriffs of this city and the county of Middleſex, for the year enſuing:—Edward Gale Boldero, goldſmith; William Marriott, baker; Geo. Browne, merchant-taylor; Thomas Aris Pearſon, ſtationer; Richard Welch, glover; Joſeph Warner, grocer; Joſeph Bramley, founder; Philip Rundell, draper; James Alexander, butcher.

MAY 23.

On Wedneſday, the ſeſſions commenced at the Old Bailey, before the recorder, Mr. juſtice Groſe, Mr. juſtice Gr[illegible]m, Mr. recorder, &c. when nineteen priſoners were tried, four of whom were capitally convicted.

SHIPS captured from the ENEMY.

LE Prefect de la Manche, 16 guns, by the Sheerneſs and lady Charlotte.

Noſtra Signora del Carmers, ſix guns, by the Amethyſt.

L'Achille, ſix guns, by the Pigmy.

Le Loire, 14 guns, by the Immortalité.

Le Renard, 10 guns, by the Fortunée.

La Dorad, 14 guns, by the Jaſon.

Vives, Spaniſh ſettee, 10 guns, by the Bonne Citoyenne.

Le General Brune, 14 guns, by the Amethyſt.

Jupiter, 16 guns, by the Leda.

Le Huron, 14 guns, by the earl Spencer.

Le Furie, 14 guns, by the Endymion.

One hundred and nineteen veſſels, taken, deſtroyed, or detained on ſuſpicion by the ſquadron commanded by vice-admiral lord Hugh Seymour, at Jamaica.

Fifteen veſſels captured or detained by admiral Duckworth's ſquadron, at the Leeward Iſlands.

Bougainville, 14 guns, by the Eurydice.

L'Eclair, 12 guns, by the Daphne.

Victoire, 14 guns, by the Lady Anne.

BIRTHS.

LADY of Anthony Angelo, eſq. of Fitzroy-ſquare, a ſon.

Lady of lieutenant-colonel Vane, a ſon.

Lady of ſir Home Popham, of York-place, Portman ſquare, a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

SIR John Arundel, of St. John's-hall, Huntingdon, to miſs S. A. Sharpe, only daughter of W. Sharpe, eſq. of Doctor's Commons.

Witney Melbourne Weſt, eſq. of Hammerſmith, to miſs Cromie, only daughter of ſir Michael Cromie, bart.

Cornelius Buller, eſq. of Croſby-ſquare, to miſs Mary Brown, daughter of Richard Brown, eſq. of Bartholomew-lane.

Lieutenant-colonel Kirkman, of Biddeford, to Mrs. Buck, of Dadſon, Devonſhire.

Thomas Maude, eſq. of Burley houſe, York, to miſs Jemmett, daughter of William Jemmett, eſq. of Aſhford, Kent.

Major Manners, to miſs Rumbold, daughter of the late ſir G. Rumbold, bart.

James Du Pré, eſq. of Wilton-park, Buckinghamſhire, to miſs Maxwell.

DEATHS.

MAURICE Nelſon, eſq. brother to lord Nelſon.

Admiral Goodall,

John Dyneley, eſq. of Bloomſbury-ſquare.

John Baker, eſq. of Hacton hill, Eſſex.

General John Carnac, aged 82, at Mangolore, in the Eaſt Indies.

General Cyrus Trapaud, aged 87.

Major John Forſter Hill.

Mr. Ralph Smith, of Pancras, aged 82.

Mrs. Venn, of Ipſwich, aged 85.

Dr. Heberden, of Pall-mall, aged 91.

George Frederick Preſcott, eſq. of Theobald's-grove.

Andrew Stuart, eſq. M P.

Mr. Thomas Leander, muſician, aged 99.

Matthew Bazett, eſq. of Baker-ſtreet.

Lieutenant-colonel Cathcart Taylor.

PROMOTIONS.

RIGHT hon. Horatio baron Nelſon, K. B. and vice-admiral of the blue—Viſcount Neiſon of the Nile, and of Burnham Thorpe, Norfolk.

Rear-admiral Thomas Greaves--Knight of the Bath.

Sir Richard Pepper Arden, knt.—Baronet.

Mary Anne lady Abercromby, widow of lieutenant-general ſir Ralph Abercromby—Baroneſs Abercromby, of Aboukir, and Tullibody, in the county of Clackmannan; and the dignity of baron, &c. to the heirs male of lady Abercromby, by ſir Ralph Abercromby.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

APRIL 28.

D. PHILLIPS, Oxford-ſtreet, ſtable-keeper.

J. B. Wienholt, Old Swan, London, merchant.

S. Gazeley, Great Queen-ſtreet, Lincoln's-inn-fields, merchant.

F. Briſtow, Haymarket, ſhoe-maker.

T. Dunſterville, Eaſt Stonehouſe, Devonſhire, ſhipwright.

W. Porter, Kidderminſter, Worceſterſhire, baker.

J. C. H. Garbers, Liverpool, merchant.

B. Iſrael, Haneage-lane, Houndſditch, butcher.

J. Scoffield, Baſinghall-ſtreet, factor.

W. Thompſon, Alton, Southampton, ſilk-weaver.

W. Perrins, Bedworth, Warwickſhire, maltſter.

W. Scoffield, Portſea, Southampton, taylor.

T. Cooper, Sharples, Lancaſhire, ſhopkeeper.

R. Aldridge, Nailſworth, Glouceſterſhire, clothier.
J. Baron, Blackley, Lancaſhire, manufacturer.
G. Robinſon, Hunſlett, in Yorkſhire, cloth-merchant.
W. Birkby, Brookhouſes, Yorkſhire, card-maker.
W. Dowbiggen, Lancaſter, merchant.

MAY 2.

J. Liniker, Liverpool, woollen-draper.
W. Aſhcroft, Knowſley, Lancaſhire, earthenware-manufacturer.
T. Kemp, Knareſbrough, Yorkſhire, flax-dreſſer.
W. Stonehewer, and W. Davies, Manchester, fuſtian manufacturers.
D. Lloyd, Oxford-ſtreet, ſilverſmith.
T. Jullian, Old Brentford, money-ſcrivener.
H. Cooper, Sandwich, Kent, linen-draper.
V. D'Oliveira, Princes-ſtreet, near the Bank, merchant.
J. Healy, Layſtall-ſtreet, brewer.
S. Traſh, Oxford, grocer.
J. Griffiths, Fleet-market, vintner.
R. Parker, Little Argyle-ſtreet, fiſhmonger.
E. Bull, Groſvenor-mews, Hanover-ſquare, hackneywoman.
J. Betriman, Brewer-ſtreet, Pimlico, floriſt.
T. Barnes, Fleet-ſtreet, ſtationer.
W. Redward, Walworth, Surry, carpenter.
J. Collier, Chorley, Lancaſhire, cotton-manufacturer.

MAY 5.

J. Clark, Shoe-lane, carpenter.
J. Kapli, Great St. Helen's, money-ſcrivener.
T. Fenner, Weſt Wycombe, Bucks, ſhopkeeper.
F. Larard, Manchester, liquor-merchant.
J. Jackſon, Manchester, muſlin-manufacturer.
T. Hancock, Kingſwood, Wiltſhire, clothier.
F. Robbins, Deretend, Warwickſhire, merchant.
W. Buddle the younger, Chenies-ſtreet, St. Giles in the fields, carpenter.
W. Holmes, Pudſey, Yorkſhire, dry-ſalter.

MAY 9.

R. Haxell, Eaton, Bucks, corn-dealer.
J. Lloyd, Audlem, Chester, grocer.
N. M. Jackſon, and G. Bartlett, Gerrard-ſtreet, Soho, ironmongers.
E. Coveney, St. Mary-at-hill, Lower Thames-ſtreet, victualler.
J. Comper, Chicheſter, linen-draper.
T. Cortis, and J. Cortis, Grimſby, Lincolnſhire, grocers.
R. Beck, Glouceſter, innkeeper.
G. Riley, London-road, Southwark, printer.
J. Maſon, Holborn, hoſier.
T. Patience, New Broad-ſtreet, ſtone-maſon.
H. Marks, High-ſtreet, St. Giles in the Fields, ſilverſmith.
B. Clay, Huddersfield, in Yorkſhire, linen-draper.

MAY 12.

R. Medd, Kingſton-upon-Hull, timber-merchant.
J. Hook, and W. Turner, Bridge-foot, Weſtminſter, coal merchants.

MAY 16.

T. Kelly, Briſtol, cordwainer.
J. Harriſon, Sunderland, ſhip-owner.
W. Thomſon, Great Portland-ſtreet, coal-merchant.
R. Holden, Birmingham, gun-maker.
S. Went the younger, Liverpool, merchant.
W. Fincham, Tottenham-court-road, glaſs-ſeller.
J. Wilks, Walbrook, merchant.

MARCH 19.

W. Chown, Higham-mills, Northamptonſhire, miller.
J. Allgood, Glouceſter, mercer.
D. Rencher, Carey-lane, Wood-ſtreet, fancy hat-manufacturer.
H. Dale, Leeds, Staffordſhire, grocer.
G. Morville, Lancaſter, merchant.
J. Moorhouſe, Bolton-le-moors, Lancaſhire, cotton-manufacturer.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

IRELAND's Ballads, in Imitation of the Ancients, 12mo, 6s.

Aſhley's Art of Painting on, and Annealing in Glaſs, 4to, 1l 5s.

Alves' Banks of Eſk, a Poem, 12mo, 4s.

Haly's Military Obſervations, 8vo, 3s 6d, ſewed.

Thomſon's Britiſh Parnaſſus, a Poem, 4to, 4s.

Little Mountaineers of Auvergne, 12mo, 4s.

Haygarth on the Prevention of Infectious Fevers, 8vo, 5s, boards.

Whitaker's Hiſtory of the Honor of Clitheroe, 4to, 3l 3s, boards.

Irwin's Elements of Engliſh Compoſition, 12mo, 4s 6d.

Klaproth's Eſſays toward promoting the Chymical Knowledge of Mineral Subſtances, 8vo, 12s.

White's Obſervations on certain Antiquities of Egypt, 4to, 1l 5s.

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Dickinſon's Antiquities in Nottinghamſhire, part 1, 4to, 14s, boards.

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AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

May 16, 1801.

By the Wincheſter Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	110	8	90	0	55	0	36	1
Surry	130	6	——		57	6	36	4
Hertford	97	0	——		52	6	37	6
Bedford	107	1	——		55	6	34	0
Huntingdon	113	11	——		67	10	31	6
Northampton	97	10	——		62	8	29	4
Rutland	100	0	——		70	0	40	0
Leiceſter	111	2	94	0	73	10	35	11
Nottingham	114	8	90	0	73	0	38	10
Derby	129	8	——		72	0	41	2
Stafford	139	11	——		86	6	48	3
Salop	148	7	——		92	0	45	5
Hereford	152	5	108	8	87	4	46	4
Worceſter	144	5	——		91	7	45	7
Warwick	144	0	——		93	1	47	11
Wilts	127	1	——		70	8	37	10
Berks	109	6	——		56	6	39	10
Oxford	115	8	——		68	5	40	0
Bucks	114	4	——		67	6	38	9
Brecon	153	7	——		96	1	41	
Montgomery	164	9	128	0	107	2	40	3
Radnor	147	4	——		96	10	40	0
								3

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	100	8	70	6	52	8	34	4
Kent	106	6	——		59	6	30	9
Suſſex	112	7	——		56	0	34	6
Suffolk	114	0	——		42	10	30	6
Cambridge	119	7	——		43	9	21	1
Norfolk	104	8	——		55	6	27	10
Lincoln	104	8	72	0	69	4	26	2
York	111	5	——		67	11	34	3
Durham	131	7	75	2	——		40	7
Northumberland	108	8	92	0	64	4	36	2
Cumberland	136	6	98	2	83	9	55	2
Weſtmorland	131	3	118	0	87	2	46	9
Lancaſter	125	7	——		71	8	48	11
Cheſter	115	7	——		——		47	2
Flint	None		bro't		forSale		——	
Denbigh	147	9	——		109	3	50	1
Angleſea	——		——		80	0	40	0
Caernarvon	133	4	——		80	0	50	0
Merioneth	143	6	——		100	5	50	0
Cardigan	125	7	——		90	11	——	
Pembroke	134	0	——		95	4	——	
Carmarthen	140	6	——		120	0	33	4
Glamorgan	153	9	——		——		44	10
Glouceſter	147	5	——		74	2	——	
Somerſet	159	3	——		60	0	34	0
Monmouth	171	1	——		111	4	——	
Devon	137	7	——		58	2	32	6
Cornwall	119	1	——		71	4	32	4
Dorſet	137	1	——		78	6	40	0
Hants	122	3	——		66	10	39	7

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	127	4	94	2	74	3	39	1

May 21—Peck Loaf, 5s 2d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, April 1801.

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T.in.	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 0,41
1	7	30,46	41	51	75	1	E 1	hazy
	2	30,44	57	55	65	1	E 1	
2	7	30 42	43	50,5	73	1	E 1	hazy
	2	30,39	59	55	63	1	E 1	hazy. clear night
3	7	30,28	44	52,5	70	1	E 1	hazy
	2	30,18	61,5	56,5	64	1	E 1	hazy. clear night
4	7	30,00	47	54	68	h	E 0	not cloudy. fine
	2	29,91	64	58,5	66	2	ENE 1	. clear night
5	7	29,93	42	55	61	4	NNW 1	little fleet. fine
	2	30,02	47	54	54	3	NNW 2	. little rain at night. clear
6	7	30,18	35,5	49	66	0	NNW 1	hazy
	2	30,10	49	51	57	2	WSW 1	. more cloudy night
7	7	29,57	42,5	48,5	65	5	SSW 2	. windy : rain and leſs wind
	2	29,50	47	51	68	5	SSW 3	gentle rain. leſs wind and leſs cloudy
8	7	29,54	40	49,5	69	4	WSW 1	. wind N W and little wet : fine. little rain
	2	29,70	47	51	68	4	NNW 2	little rain. fine. clear night
9	7	29,91	35	47,5	67	1	N 1	
	2	29,75	50	50	60	3	SW 2	. cloudy night : rain. fine
10	7	29,52	44	50	66	1	W 1	. more wind : little rain
	2	29,69	49	52,5	66	3	W 3	. little rain. leſs wind. clear night
11	7	29,76	37,5	46,5	66	1	W 1	. little cloudy at times
	2	29,81	47	49,5	64	3	W 2	. little rain but chiefly fine : wind and ſnow
12	7	30,02	33	48,5	68	h	N 3	little ſnow. leſs wind and fine
	2	30,10	40	47,5	60	1	NNW 1	hazy. clear night
13	7	30,40	33,5	45	65	0	N 2	cloudy at times and little rain
N	2	30,39	46	46,5	68	2	N 2	. ſhowery. clear night
14	7	29,99	39,5	46	70	4	N 1	. more cloudy and chiefly drizzling
	2	30,30	48	48	77	5	NNE 1	. fine night
15	7	30,32	40,5	47	76	h	ENE 1	: fine
	2	30,25	49	49	72	3	ENE 2	hazy. clear night
16	7	30,00	42	46	78	5	NE 1	hazy. wind SE
	2	30,02	49	50	70	5	ESE 1	. fine. cloudleſs night
17	7	30,09	43,5	48	75	h	SE 1	. not cloudy
	2	30,04	55,5	51	63	4	SE 1	. little rain at night : fine
18	7	30,12	43,5	50	66	1	S 1	hazy
	2	30,16	58,5	56	55	2	NNW 1	hazy. clear night
19	7	30,29	43	51	61	0	NW 1	
	2	30,28	61	56	57	0	NW 0	
20	7	30,30	48,5	55	61	0	N 0	hazy : little cloudy
	2	30,26	64,5	59	58	4	N 0	. fine. clear night
21	7	30,30	50	56	61	4	N 1	. fine. cloudy : fine
	2	30,35	60	58,5	56	3	NE 2	. chiefly cloudy
22	7	30,51	44,5	52	60	5	ENE 2	. fine
	2	30,50	53,5	55	57	2	E 2	. more cloudy night
23	7	30,52	45	50	58	4	E 2	. fine
	2	30,51	53,5	52,5	53	1	E 2	
24	7	30,48	42,5	49	61	0	E 1	
	2	30,45	56	53,5	51	0	E 2	
25	7	30,41	44,5	50,5	65	0	E 1	
	2	30,38	60	55	52	0	E 2	
26	7	30,38	45,5	51,5	62	0	E 1	
	2	30,37	63,5	56,5	50	0	E 2	
27	7	30,42	47,5	52,5	56	0	E 0	hazy
	2	30,42	64,5	58	51	0	E 1	
28	7	30,40	47,5	53,5	60	0	E 1	hazy
F	2	30,38	61,5	56,5	45	0	E 2	
29	7	30,34	48,5	53,5	60	0	E 1	hazy
	2	30,31	61,5	57	51	0	E 2	
30	7	30,25	46,5	54	61	0	E 1	hazy
	2	30,20	61,5	58	51	0	E 2	

PRICES of STOCKS, from April 28 to May 27, 1801, both inclusive.

By Anthony Clarke, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. conſols.	4 per C. Anns.	Old 5 per C. Conſ.	New 5 per C. Anns.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exchequer Bills.	Engliſh Lot. Tic.	Iriſh Lot. Tic.
28	ſhut.	ſhut.	59 1/8 a 1/4	77 1/4	95 5/8	93 5/8	18 1/2	5	195			13s. dif.		
29	164		59 1/2 a 60 1/2	77	95 3/8	93 3/4	18	5 1/8	198 1/2			28s.		
30	165 1/2		60a61 1/4	79	95 3/4	94 3/4	18 1/8	5 1/8	199			28s.		
1	168		61a61 5/8	79 1/2		95	18 1/4		201 1/2			48s.		
2	169 1/4		61a61 1/2	79	97	95 1/8	18 1/4	5 1/8	201 1/2			38s.		
4			61a60 5/8	79	96 7/8	94 1/4	18 1/4	5 1/8	201			28s.		
5	166		60 1/2 a 1/2	78 7/8	96 3/4	94 1/4	18 1/4	5 1/8	200			28s.		
6	168 1/2		60 1/2 a 1/2	78 7/8	96 3/4	94 1/4		5 1/8	200			48s.		
7	169 1/4		60 1/2 a 7	79	96 3/4	94 1/8	18 1/4		200 1/2			48s.		
8	169 1/4	59 7/8	60 1/2 a 1/2	78 7/8	96 3/4	94 1/8	18 1/4	5 1/8	200 1/2			48s.		
9	169 1/4	60	60 a 61	79			18 1/4	5 1/8	202 1/2			48s.		
11		59 7/8	60 7/8 a 5/8	78 5/8	96 5/8	94 3/8	18 1/4	5				58s.		
12	168 1/4	59 7/8	60 1/2 a 1/2	78 1/2	96 3/4	94	18 1/8	5 1/8	201			68s.		
13	168	59 7/8	60 1/2 a 7/8	78 1/4	96 3/4	94	18 1/8		200 1/2			58s.		
14		59 7/8	60 1/2 a 7/8						200 1/2			58s.		
15	167 1/2	59 7/8	60 1/2 a 3/4	78 3/8	96 3/4	94 1/8	18 1/8	5 1/8	200			58s.		
16	167 1/2	59 7/8	60 7/8 a 5/8	78 1/2	96 3/4	94 1/4	18 1/8	5 1/8	200			48s.		
18	168	59 7/8	60 1/2 a 3/8	78 1/2	96 3/4	94 1/8	18		200 1/4			58s.		
19	168 1/2	60 1/8	61 1/8 a 60 3/4	78 1/2	96 3/4	94 1	18 1/8	5 1/8	200 1/4			48s.		
20	168	59 7/8	60 3/4 a 1/2	78 1/2	96 7/8	94 1/8	18 1/8	5	200 1/2			58s.		
21	168	59 7/8	60 1/2 a 3/8	78 1/2	96 3/4	94	18		199 1/2		11 1/8	58s.		
22	167 1/2	59 7/8	60 5/8 a 7/8	78 3/4	96 3/4	94	18 1/8	5 1/8	200	58 5/8	11 1/8	48s.		
23		60	60 1/4 a 61	78 1/2	96 3/4	94 1/8	18 1/8			58 3/4	11 1/8	48s.		
25														
26														
27		60	60 3/4 a 7/8	78 3/8	96 3/4	94 1/8	18 1/8	5 1/8		58 7/8	11 3/8			

☞ In the 3 per Cent. conſols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a fixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

Dividend till the Days of Opening.